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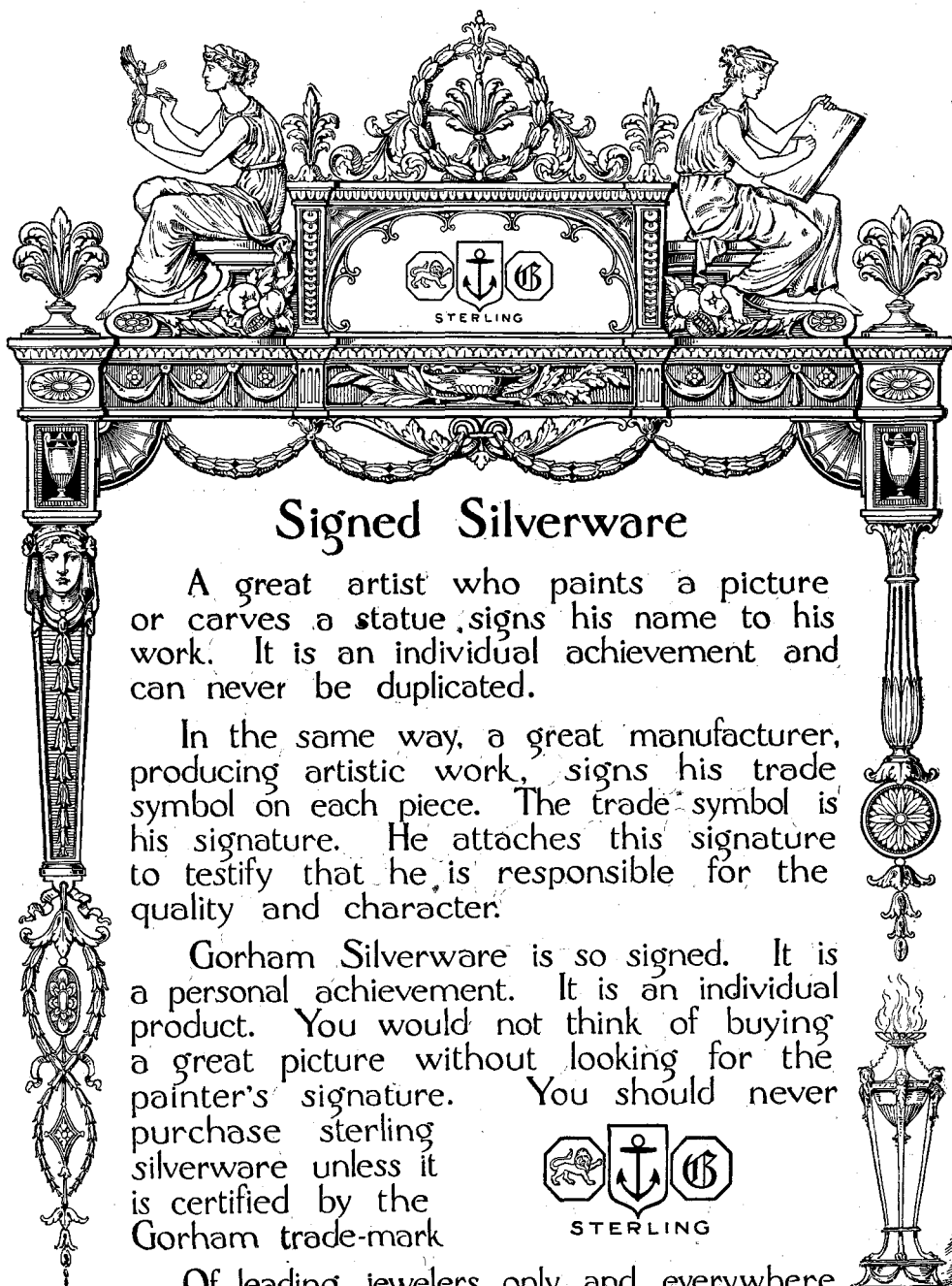
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The Outlook

JULY 15, 1911

LYMAN ABBOTT, Editor-in-Chief. HAMILTON W. MABIE, Associate Editor
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Contributing Editor



THE STEEL REPORT

The first requisite in adequate control of the great corporations is knowledge of the facts. For securing such knowledge the Federal Government already has an efficient instrument—the Bureau of Corporations. The chief of this Bureau, Mr. Herbert Knox Smith, Commissioner of Corporations, has issued an exhaustive report upon one of the greatest corporations in the world, the United States Steel Corporation. This report deals with a number of topics which may be distinguished as follows, and which we set down, not in the order in which they appear in the report, but in the order which makes summary simple and comparatively clear: first, the history and character of the organization of the steel corporation; second, the nature of its monopoly, so far as it is a monopoly; third, the character and effect of its capitalization; fourth, the effect of this huge organization upon the steel industry. The United States Steel Corporation is a great holding company; that is, it is a concern whose sole function is to own, and thus to control, other companies. In most of the cases it owns all of the stock of the constituent concerns. It thus eliminates competition between those concerns. The formation of this great holding company was the result of a natural growth through competition in the steel industry. There were two kinds of companies before this organization was formed: so-called primary companies engaged in the manufacture of crude and semi-finished steel, and so-called secondary companies manufacturing steel products such as sheet steel, tin plate, wire, and bridges. The former had to have access to ore, the latter had to have as its material the manufactured steel. Little by little the primary companies extended their operations upwards into

the field of the secondary companies and began to make the finished steel products, while the secondary companies extended their operations downwards and, securing control of ore fields, engaged in the manufacture of crude steel. The effect was of course a fierce competition which threatened to become a steel war, each of the companies becoming “integrated,” that is, becoming an independent company covering the whole process of steel manufacture from beginning to end, and each company becoming the rival of the others. When at last the Carnegie Company, one of the primary group, threatened to erect a great tube plant and thus invade the field of the finished manufacture, the opportune moment arrived for a great combination, and in a very few weeks there was organized the United States Steel Corporation, which inclosed within its confines the dominating companies of both primary and secondary groups. Is such a concern a monopoly? In one sense no, for it does not escape competition. There are independent steel companies that are competitors of the United States Steel Corporation. In another sense it is a monopoly, or tends to monopoly, not only in so far as it eliminates competition, but because it controls huge deposits of ore to which no other concern can have access, and also controls certain means of transportation. Ore fields and the means of transportation of ore are, however, natural monopolies, and in so far as they determine the character of the Steel Corporation they put it into a different category from that of a purely artificial monopoly.

THE STEEL TRUST AND THE STEEL INDUSTRY

In the effect of such a huge organization upon industry, and therefore upon the life of the people, the form of its capitalization has

an important part. When the United States Steel Corporation was formed, the total value of the property of the constituent companies was (according to the Bureau's estimate, arrived at by several different methods) not over \$700,000,000; but the total amount of securities issued was at least twice that amount, namely, \$1,400,000,000. A comparison of these two figures makes perfectly credible the statement that the promoters of this new gigantic trust netted a clear profit of \$62,500,000 in cash. Upon this enormous capitalization the industry had, of course, if it was going to succeed, to pay ample dividends; and, inasmuch as some of the plants made but small profits, the successful plants had to make very large profits indeed. The Commissioner of Corporations finds that on the actual investment the Steel Corporation has earned as an average from 1901 to the end of 1910 annual profits of 12 per cent, ranging from 7.6 at the lowest to 15.9 per cent at the highest. The present condition of the capitalization of the company is now more wholesome than it was at the beginning, for the Commissioner of Corporations finds that the valuation of the tangible assets of the Corporation has been increased, from surplus earnings, to \$1,187,000,000, while its securities have increased only to \$1,468,000,000. That means that the valuation of the tangible property, which at first was less than one-half of the face value of the securities, is now over three-quarters of it. The company, of course, takes the position that the merging of these constituent concerns has resulted in the increased value of each one of them, for the merging has enabled them to make greater profits. In other words, whatever has tended to make the Steel Trust a monopoly, by giving it power over prices and production, gives it a greater earning power. As the Commissioner points out, however, to allow monopoly to be an excuse for increased capitalization, and therefore greater dividends, involves a serious problem. "To regard a valuation so arrived at," says Commissioner Smith, "as justifying such profits under these conditions would be reasoning in a circle, because the real question is whether the profits themselves, used to determine the capital-

ization, were reasonable." The effect upon the steel industry can perhaps best be expressed briefly by saying that the Commissioner of Corporations finds that since the organization of the trust its proportion of the total output of steel products has decreased, while its proportion of ownership or control of iron ore deposits has increased.



LABOR AND CAPITAL IN THE STEEL INDUSTRY

Commissioner Smith's report makes it plain that the United States Steel Corporation,

which has been managed in some respects with statesmanlike enlightenment, has been the medium for serious abuses, and is open, not only to commendation for good acts, beneficial alike to itself, to its employees, and to the public, but also to criticism for practices which are not only contrary to public interest and injurious to the Corporation's employees, but, in the long run, freighted with peril to the prosperity and even existence of the Corporation itself. It is not an act of unfriendliness, it is rather an act of friendliness, to point out to the managers of a corporation the evils which they have fastened upon that corporation. It is significant that the policies with regard to capitalization pursued by the organizers of the Steel Corporation have been accompanied by hostility to organized labor and by the creation of a condition among the wage-earners in the steel industry that has scandalized the country. The fact, which capitalists and laborers alike forget, is that in the long run in this country the side which does injustice suffers for it, although the individuals who are the active agents in the injustice may themselves escape punishment. The trust managers should take a leaf out of the experience of the labor unions in their own industry. Up to the time of the Homestead strike labor-unionism in the steel industry was rampantly dominant. Labor union leaders who were guilty of wrong-doing laughed at words of counsel and remonstrance. When the crash came, with the Homestead strike, the masters of capital took advantage of the situation to destroy unionism in the steel business. Then, unfortunately, these masters of capital created a tyranny of capital as remorseless as

the labor tyranny which it had overthrown. In his report Commissioner Smith does not enter into the relation between the Corporation and its employees. What is known in this respect is due principally to the Pittsburgh Survey, carried on by a committee of the Charities Publication Committee and financed by the Russell Sage Foundation. It is only fair to say that the conditions there revealed were not confined by any means to the United States Steel Corporation, but were characteristic of the industry as a whole. The capitalists who now dominate the industrial situation in the steel business should remember that this domination cannot be permanent. Even those who exercise their domination benevolently should remember that benevolence does not take the place of justice. This country will not forever tolerate an industrial situation in which periods of dominance by captains of labor alternate with periods of dominance by captains of capital. What must result eventually is some industrial system based on justice worked out in terms which guarantee co-operation between the two sides. There is only one power that can promise and enforce such a guarantee. That power is the Federal Government. Commissioner Smith makes it even more plain than it was before that relief from present conditions is not to be expected from the Anti-Trust Law, that it can come only through a law which will give to the Federal Government an adequate instrument for the control of business. What this means in contrast to the theory that benefit can result from the mere breaking up of big combinations we discuss on another page in an editorial on "The Impending Issue."

THE MYSTERY OF THE MAINE

There have been three excellent reasons for undertaking the task, so long delayed, of removing the wreck of the battle-ship Maine from the harbor of Havana. One is that the wreck is an obstruction to commerce; another is that it still contains the bodies of many American sailors; a third is that, if new light can be thrown on the cause of the disaster by a full examination of the wreck itself, such information should be obtained. The Engineering Department of the army

has done a really wonderful piece of scientific work on a large scale in its efforts to bring into the light of day the slime-covered hull and tangled mass of wreckage which is all that remains of the splendid battle-ship which sank at its moorings on February 15, 1898. The appropriation of \$300,000 by Congress, after nearly thirteen years, has made the attempt possible. Private contractors offered to carry on the work, but the President rightly decided that it should be done by army engineers, and General W. H. Bixby has been in command. The method adopted has been to construct a coffer-dam of steel pilings which overlap one another, and then to pump out the water inside. This sounds like simplicity itself; but, in point of fact, the scale upon which this operation is being conducted has been so great that its success is a triumph of modern engineering. The coffer-dam was completed about three months ago, and within the past few weeks the water has gradually been pumped out, so that already a considerable portion of the wreck has been exposed to view. A board of inquiry will make a full examination of the wreck, and its report will tell all that can be known. It is already evident, however, that, in the nature of the case, investigation is not likely to settle positively and definitely the mystery as to the Maine's destruction. Statements attributed to General Bixby, the engineer in charge, have been disowned by him in the form printed, but he is quoted, apparently with correctness, as saying that the destruction of a large part of the vessel was undoubtedly caused by the explosion of its own forward magazines, and that a portion of the deck over the magazines was blown upward and laid backward—which certainly could not have been caused by explosion from the outside. But it should not be concluded from this that there could have been no explosion from the outside. It would not only be possible, but quite probable, that a primary explosion from a torpedo or mine on the outside of the vessel would instantly cause an internal explosion of the magazines. A board of experts which took the evidence of divers who examined, as well as they could, the condition of the wreck immediately after the explosion made a

formal report to our Government, and, to quote the report, stated that "the ship was destroyed by the explosion of a submarine mine which caused the partial explosion of two or more of her forward magazines." This, it will be seen, is precisely compatible with the facts disclosed by the uncovering of the ship itself. It should be added that from the time of the explosion to the present day no evidence has appeared from any source which would even tend to show by whom or for what purpose the Maine was attacked. The time that has now elapsed makes it extremely improbable that the mystery will ever be solved completely, unless, indeed, it be shown (which does not now seem likely) that there was no external explosion at all. A common popular error, which ought not to go uncontradicted, thoughtlessly assumes that the blowing up of the Maine was the cause of our war with Spain. It would be as correct to assert that the hanging of John Brown caused the Civil War. Before the Maine was blown up our relations with Spain were strained to the breaking point, and the people of the United States had pretty fully made up their minds that they would not tolerate longer the condition of affairs which existed in Cuba and the refusal of Spain to meet our demands with promptness and in a satisfactory way. "Remember the Maine!" was a battle-cry; but it did not point out the fundamental reason why the United States was bound by force to interfere in the affairs of Cuba for the sake of the people of Cuba, the people of the United States, and the peace and prosperity of this hemisphere.



A GOOD VETO Mayor Gaynor, as we hoped, has refused to approve the Stillwell Bill, which threatened to force the building of the New York County Court-House in City Hall Park. For eight years the selection of a site has been the joint function of a Court-House Board and the city's Board of Estimate. During that time the two bodies have not been able to agree upon a site. The Stillwell Bill would require the Board of Estimate, before four months have passed, to come to an agreement with the Court-House Board, or be rendered powerless to prevent the Court-

House from being placed in City Hall Park. In the statement accompanying his veto Mayor Gaynor expressed his disapproval of this method of settling the question, and proposed that the Legislature give the Board of Estimate six months in which to decide upon a site, without reference to the Court-House Board. Mayor Gaynor declares his understanding to be that it is "the wish of the members of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment to select some large block or square in the city to serve as a suitable setting for a Court-House which will be an architectural ornament to the city and at the same time be large enough for the use of the courts for many years." With this desire of the members of the Board of Estimate many associations and civic bodies and most of the newspapers of the city have already expressed themselves as being in accord. We believe that the consummation of such a result is the real desire of the people of the city. It is reported that the Board of Estimate has already selected an eminently suitable site near the Municipal Building now going up not far from the City Hall. If the Court-House Board is the obstacle which prevents the adoption of this or some other equally good site outside City Hall Park, Mayor Gaynor's proposal would solve the problem in the only way that it ought to be solved, by giving New York City without further delay the Court-House it so sadly needs, and by having it placed outside City Hall Park.



**EMINENT AUTHORITY
IN SUPPORT OF
RIGHT PRINCIPLES**

Last week, under the title "Revolution, but not Reform," The Outlook pointed out what it considered the radical defects in the proposals for change in the educational system of the city of New York under the charter now before the Legislature. Affirmatively The Outlook put forward these three fundamental principles to be observed in any change:

Education is the function of the State, not of the local community.

The teaching force should be paid. The board of business administration should be unpaid.

The board should be large enough to represent the various elements interested in

the school, but no larger than is necessary for that purpose.

We are gratified to find the position thus taken indorsed in public letters printed in New York papers last week from such unquestioned authorities in educational matters as President Lowell, of Harvard; President Butler, of Columbia; Mrs. Ella Young, Superintendent of Schools in Chicago; and other recognized experts. All agree that it is a serious mistake to pay members of the Board of Education; that such a course brings politics into the schools; and that it is perfectly possible to obtain, not only good service, but, as President Butler says, better and more effective service, from members of a school board who are not paid. President Lowell's statement is so clear and convincing that we quote from it at some length:

The plan seems to me a mistake.

The successful conduct of the educational system of a great city depends upon its administration by permanent professional educators who are well paid, who devote their whole time, and who are not liable to removal by reason of party politics. By far the best arrangement is to have one such man at the head of the system, with others to assist and advise him. These professional men ought to be under the control of a non-professional, unpaid body, who do not pretend to give their whole time to the work, and whose business is to keep the professional man in touch with public opinion.

From experience as a member of the School Board of the city of Boston, and from the study of many governments, it seems to me that this is the only way in which satisfactory results can, in the long run, be obtained.

Now the plan proposed excludes one or other of the essential elements—the professional administration of the school system or the lay control—and it may well eliminate both and make the management of the schools a football of politics. The highly salaried members of the board are very unlikely themselves to be permanent professional educators, and yet, being paid high salaries, they will be expected to devote substantially their whole time to the work, and therefore cannot commit the administration of the schools to highly paid professional men. It seems to me, therefore, that the plan is almost certain to result in inefficiency, and that the commissioners are highly likely to owe their office to political influence and conduct the service for political objects.

We cannot believe that Mayor Gaynor can be indifferent to the opinion of such experienced leaders as these.

THE ARRIVAL OF THE AEROPLANE

The flight of eleven aeroplanes across the English Channel one day last week and the return flight of nine of them a few days later afford a striking illustration of the distance we have come along the road leading to the conquest of the air. The aviators were engaged in a circuit race from Paris to London and back. The route led from Paris by way of Rheims, Liège, Utrecht, Brussels, Calais, and Dover to London, and returning by Dover, Calais, and Amiens to Paris. The most spectacular stage of the journey was, of course, that across the English Channel. The Channel is only a little over twenty miles wide, and a flight of that distance is merely a hop, skip, and jump for the aeroplane of to-day. But it is less than two years since Louis Blériot first flew across the Channel, to the astonishment and delight of the world. To-day (last week, rather) a flock of aeroplanes, sent off from their starting-point at mathematical intervals and following their leader like a string of migrating ducks, multiplied the Blériot feat elevenfold, without fuss or feathers, delay or accident. One of the aeroplanes carried a passenger as well as its driver. Travel by aeroplane is making giant strides toward becoming as usual and unsensational a performance as touring by automobile. The international polo matches at Hempstead were visited by a wandering aeroplane, whose hovering over the field distracted the attention of the spectators from the game below hardly more than a passing cloud. The shells in the Yale-Harvard boat race, too, were accompanied, in the lighter medium above, by an aviator, who found his only difficulty in reining his steed in to the pace of the laboring crews below. Mr. Atwood had set out from Boston in his biplane, carrying a passenger with him, and had made an easy and uneventful run to New London. After the races he started for New York, ending his trip by circling about over the city and landing on Governor's Island. There he spent a day or two making flights over the island and the waters of the bay. Then he started off for Washington, still carrying a passenger. He broke the journey at Atlantic City, where once more he spent several

days in exhibition flights. When half a score of men can fly across the English Channel in orderly procession, and when an aviator in Boston can go to the stable, harness up his plane, get in with a friend and go to New London, watch a boat race without admission fee or ticket, then on to New York, then to Atlantic City, and so to Washington, arranging his schedule to please himself—surely the aeroplane has arrived. It is no longer an experiment, a toy, or an easy road to suicide. It is true that men lose their lives in aeroplanes (thirty of them last year), but so they do in automobiles. Death is no more an unescapable consequence of rational, careful flying than it is of rational, careful touring by automobile. The automobile, humanly speaking, is to-day safe. The aeroplane when used with the same discretion and common sense is hardly more dangerous. We question whether the horseless carriage made as rapid progress in the first three years after its invention as the aeroplane has made. The only question that confronts us is, what are the limits of the aeroplane's development and usefulness? He would be a rash prophet who drew those limits too close.

GERMANY AND MOROCCO

It is exaggeration to speak, as some of the newspapers have done, of the "war cloud" in Morocco. The action of Germany in sending first a gunboat and later a cruiser to the port of Agadir, in Morocco, does not presage seriously a sharp and dangerous conflict between the great nations involved, but it does mean a reopening, through diplomatic correspondence and negotiations, of a complicated problem which the Algeciras Convention by no means finally settled. Germany, before that attempted settlement, strongly objected to the agreement between France and Great Britain "that it pertained to France to control the peace of Morocco." The German Government has long believed that her trade opportunities through Morocco ought to be extended. When the Kaiser suddenly visited Morocco, the international feeling that "a crisis was at hand" led to the meeting at Algeciras five years ago. Under the agreement

made, the duty of preserving order in Morocco was left to France and Spain jointly, but from that time on Germany has shown impatience and lack of satisfaction with what France and Spain have done under the authorization of the Convention. Just what led to the sending of a German war-ship to the Morocco coast is not clear. It is alleged that German traders have suffered from local disturbances, but there certainly has been no large outbreak in the vicinity. It is doubtful whether either France, Spain, or Great Britain would wish to remodel the Algeciras Convention, but Germany has a way of making a sudden movement, like that of 1906 or that of last week, which almost forces some kind of immediate action by the other Powers. All four Powers have trade interests in Morocco, and in Great Britain many people hold the view that Germany would like to establish a naval post on the coast of Morocco. The French statesmen have shown moderation in their polite inquiries as to Germany's intentions. In the British House of Commons Mr. Asquith, replying to a question, said: "I can say little at this stage, but wish it to be clearly understood that the Government considers that a new situation has arisen in Morocco in which it is possible that future developments may affect British interests more directly than has hitherto been the case. We are confident that the diplomatic discussion will find a solution." The United States, it will be remembered, was a signatory to the Algeciras Convention, but took no responsibility as to enforcing the conclusions then reached, and has in view only the development of American commerce and the protection of its citizens. The ratification of the Convention by the United States Senate specifically declared that American participation was "without purpose to depart from the traditional American foreign policy, which forbids participation by the United States in the settlement of political questions which are entirely European in their scope."

RUSSIAN EXHIBITION OF PERIODICALS AND BOOKS

The Russian Department of Press Affairs has just opened in St. Petersburg its third annual exhibition of periodicals and books.

Readers who are accustomed to think of Russia as a country of scant intellectual culture and rudimentary appreciation of literature will perhaps be surprised to learn that the literary output of the Empire last year filled ten large halls in the building formerly occupied by the Imperial Typographic Bureau, and comprised, in the aggregate, 2,391 different newspapers and magazines, in forty-two languages, and 29,057 books, with a total circulation of 109,990,000 copies. Of the 2,391 periodicals, two—the St. Petersburg “Vedomosti” and the St. Petersburg “Zeitung”—have been in existence one hundred and eighty-four years; six are more than a century old, while ninety-seven have been published more or less continuously for periods ranging from fifty to ninety-nine years. More than half of the periodicals of the Empire, however, date only from 1905, and a large part of these are not additions to the number then published, but merely substitutes for the newspapers and magazines that the censor has since suppressed. In the first three years after the attempted revolution of 1905–6, 1,259 editors were criminally prosecuted, 462 were sentenced to terms of imprisonment in fortresses or jails, and 1,085 periodicals were temporarily suspended or closed altogether on account of their “injurious tendency.” Among the Government exhibits in the periodical section is a large map of the Empire, on which the political complexion of the newspapers and magazines of the country is shown by means of small colored flags. White is used for the “loyal” periodicals, while red indicates the incendiary nature of the Constitutional Democratic journals, and black the piratical character of the sheets that stand for “Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity.” Another interesting Government exhibit, in the periodical section, is a collection of twenty thousand Russian newspaper clippings relating exclusively to the last days and death of Count Tolstoy. These clippings are bound in twenty immense scrap-books, and, taken in connection with the literature of Tolstoy, which fills one entire hall, they furnish a striking proof of the interest taken in the great Russian author by his fellow-countrymen, and the importance of the place that he filled in their minds

and hearts. This collection would be more complete, however, if it contained a list of the newspapers and magazines fined, suspended, or suppressed for publishing the articles of which it is composed, and the names of the editors sent to jail for writing them.



RUSSIAN BOOKS OF A YEAR

The 29,057 books published in Russia last year line the walls of ten spacious halls from floor to ceiling, and constitute in themselves a library of no inconsiderable magnitude. So little, comparatively, is known in America of the intellectual life of the Russians that it may be worth while to note the classification of the more popular books by subjects, with the number of volumes published in each class. The Press Department gives the figures as follows :

Books.	Numbers.	Copies.
Religious.....	2,232	8,692,399
Belles-lettres.....	2,013	6,692,149
For peasants.....	1,595	15,541,645
For children.....	1,287	5,727,083
Educational.....	2,075	20,730,510
Almanacs.....	734	13,902,357
Complete editions of authors' works.....	329	1,032,575

Of last year's books, 22,321 were in Russian, but no less than forty-three other languages were represented, including Polish (2,062 books), Jewish (903), German (884), Latin (649), Tartar (313), Armenian (203), and Georgian (117). There was a noticeable decrease last year in the department of literature known in Russia as “Pinkerton fiction,” statistics of which were given in The Outlook of October 1, 1910. In 1909 the number of detective stories published—chiefly for circulation among the peasants—was 585, with a sale of nearly nine million copies. Last year the number of such books dropped suddenly from 585 to 90. Inasmuch as there has been no censorial repression of this kind of literature, Russian publishers are unable to explain the great decrease in its volume. So far as they know, no other books of a popular character have been substituted for the “Pinkerton stories,” and they are consequently forced to the conclusion that the peasants are reading less, or are giving more attention to newspapers and magazines. The exhibition contains, in trans-

lations, a fair representation of American literature, and the catholic taste of the Russian reading public is shown by the fact that among such translations are books as different from one another in character as Thoreau's "Walden," Miss Alcott's "Little Women," the nature books of Thompson Seton, the complete works of Mark Twain, and Walt Whitman's "Leaves of Grass." Among the translated foreign books condemned in one part of the Empire or another as "pernicious," and withdrawn from circulation, are "Statistics and Economics," by the late Professor Mayo Smith, of Columbia University; the works of Henry George and Edgar Allan Poe (!); Ibsen's "Ghosts;" Haeckel's "Riddle of the Universe;" Cooper's "History of Flogging in All Countries;" Hesba Stretton's "Through Great Tribulation;" and Anatole France's "Island of Penguins."



THE PRINCE OF MONACO'S PROFESSION

By profession, Albert, Prince of Monaco, is an oceanographer. Like Duke Karl Theodor of Bavaria, the Prince shows a realization of the Greek ideal, "when kings are philosophers and philosophers kings." Over a year ago he opened the Oceanographical Museum at Monaco, the first institution of its kind in the world. Situated on the noble rock of Monaco, and facing the sea, the Oceanographical Museum is in dignity and worth a striking contrast to that other and far better known building, the Casino at Monte Carlo, hard by. Instead of appealing to a vice, the Museum appeals to a great science, indeed to one which, as its name indicates, has been only newly marked out from other sciences. The location of the building is well adapted for its work; the lower three stories are below the summit of the cliff and contain a great aquarium, six large special laboratories for scientific workers, together with other smaller laboratories, and a hall for the preparation of skins and skeletons of whales, seals, fishes, and birds. The other part of the Museum is above the summit of the cliff, and is two stories high. The building is a veritable palace of the sea, and took no less than twelve years to build. Without the intel-

ligence and energy of the Prince of Monaco, there could have been no such Museum. But his ideal was still unsatisfied. Whereas the Monaco Museum gathers in material from the sea, and shows it in its aquaria in living form and in its galleries in the prepared state, and then in its laboratories works up all that may be learned about it, whether from a physical or a biological point of view, the Prince also saw the need for a branch of the Museum in some great city where lectures and scientific courses may reach a larger number of people than would be possible at Monaco. Accordingly, at his initiative and because of his generosity, an Oceanographical Institute has been erected in Paris. It is appropriately situated in the very heart of the student district—the Latin Quarter—in the Rue Saint-Jacques, close to the Sorbonne. The building was dedicated the other day, and of course the Prince of Monaco made the principal address. He pointed out what may prove to be the chief advantage of the Institute in the fact that it is both French and international—French because its seat is in Paris and because it is directed by a French administrative council; international because in scientific and technical matters the Institute is guided by a Comité de Perfectionnement whose members are from many nationalities.



INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

With the boat races on the Hudson and the Thames the season of intercollegiate athletics came to an end. On the Hudson Cornell maintained its habitual aquatic supremacy by defeating Columbia, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and Syracuse in a race in which Columbia was the leader until almost the end. On the Thames Harvard repeated its victory of the preceding three years in a race in which Yale was left some fifteen lengths behind. In the baseball series Harvard also defeated its ancient rival. Earlier in the year Cornell outrowed Harvard in a two-mile race, and outrowed both Yale and Princeton in a race on Lake Carnegie at Princeton, which was noteworthy for the re-emergence of Princeton in intercollegiate boat-racing. Princeton defeated Yale in baseball, and also, for the first time, in

track athletics. Of all the colleges, Cornell has been uniformly most successful. The "Harvard Alumni Bulletin" gives to Cornell the credit of being this year pre-eminent in athletics. In baseball the Cornell nine has as good a record as any, and in track athletics the Cornell athletes won against the field. The time is past, however—we believe fortunately—for any general intercollegiate championship. Twenty years ago athletic supremacy was supposed to be open to one of only three institutions—Harvard, Yale, and Princeton—although Cornell at that time was famous for its crews. In track and field athletics for more than fifteen years Harvard had scarcely a rival, and in football and baseball the great intercollegiate games were those between Harvard, Yale, and Princeton; and, in spite of Cornell's rowing ability, the one rowing event that eclipsed all others was that between Harvard and Yale on the Thames. Now all is changed. There is no small group of colleges to any one of which a championship can be assigned. Athletic skill has become, as it were, democratized. This is as it should be. Athletic rivalry is most wholesome when it is a rivalry between two or three—a rivalry between Yale and Harvard, or Yale and Princeton, or Cornell and Pennsylvania, or Williams and Amherst, or Leland Stanford and California. Such traditional rivalries mean traditional friendships. The Harvard man, just because he feels that a Yale man comes from the camp of an ancient foe, is ready to receive him as a hereditary friend. There is still need of elevating the spirit in American intercollegiate athletics, but there is no doubt that the tendency is upwards.



A FRIEND OF THE ITALIAN

Once on a time the incoming aliens landed on our shores under no supervision. There was no regard for the interests of the American people among whom they were coming, and no regard for the welfare of the strangers themselves. To-day the interests of the American people are guarded by the officials of the Immigration Bureau, and the interests of the immigrants are not only regarded by the Government officials

but also by societies whose co-operation the Government welcomes. Of the total immigration the largest element is that consisting of Italians. About a decade ago a woman without special influence undertook to do something for these incoming Italians. Her temperament and training combined to give her special sympathy and interest on behalf of a people of artistic inheritance. Because of her persistent efforts there was finally established the Society for Italian Immigrants. The belief in the triumph of the spirit over body finds new confirmation in the life of such a woman as was Miss Sarah Wool Moore. She was not content with setting at work agencies for greeting the Italian as he arrived, but she was determined that something should be done to prepare him for citizenship after his arrival. In February, 1908, and in August, 1909, *The Outlook* gave some account, in editorial paragraphs and in a contributed article, of the schools of the construction camps which had been organized for the Italian workmen in Aspinwall, Pennsylvania, and at the Ashokan Dam in the Catskills. These camp schools were the creation of Miss Moore. In spite of illness and advancing years, she accomplished the impossible. At Aspinwall, which is near Pittsburgh, she interested the contractors who were erecting a filtration plant there to organize the first camp school in the history of education. While she was carrying on this school Miss Moore kept herself constantly informed as to the plans of the New York City aqueduct. Repeatedly told that neither Water Commissioners nor contractors would ever consent to the establishment of a camp school, she calmly continued to make the necessary plans, and again succeeded in doing the impossible. She had not only the large ideas of a creative mind, but also the zeal and enthusiasm of an artist, with an artist's willingness to give patient devotion to detail. In writing her little primer for the workmen she learned the words which the men needed to know by sitting on the bank of an excavation and listening to the orders given to the workmen. While at Ashokan Dam she was stricken with paralysis, but after a year's rest she returned to New York, and, although not able to do much

active teaching, she was delighted to find that the children in the construction camp near White Plains were glad to gather around her in the shade of a great tree near the camp. When she heard that the tree was to be cut down, she took the train to New York to talk with the Water Commissioners, and a telegram promptly sent rescued her beloved tree. When winter came, she was given the use of one of the buildings which had been condemned by the city, and a school was organized there by the North American Civic League for Immigrants. To the younger women associated with Miss Moore her spirit of moral adventure, in spite of failing powers, was a constant inspiration. Her life as an artist in Italy had made it possible for her to do this wonderful pioneer work among the Italians, our new fellow-citizens. Miss Moore died as she had lived, as truly a patriot as if she had served her country in time of war. To the young workingmen she was the embodiment of that culture of mind, heart, and character which will yet save America.

A GENEROUS WOMAN

Dr. Martineau said that the world had lost much by throwing away the "Lives of the Saints;" for society needs the inspiration of noble example constantly before its eyes. It needs also the Story of Good Women read or told in a million homes but rarely reported in the newspapers. Last week The Outlook told the story of a gifted and gracious woman in Missouri; this week it puts before its readers the examples of quiet women of great soul, generous heart, and wise methods in New York. For years past, in many audiences gathered in that city to hear reports of good work done or to listen to appeals for means to advance public causes, an elderly woman, whose fresh and kindly face was crowned by beautiful white hair, has been conspicuous, not by reason of her prominence in any public way, but because of her keen interest and ready response. She was a woman of Jewish ancestry, born in Utrecht, Holland, in 1823, and brought to this country in her girlhood. After her marriage to Mr. Henry Herrman she lived for a time in New Bedford, but the greater part of her long life was spent in New York. She

became deeply interested in education early in life, and her faith was evidenced by her works. She was one of the founders of Barnard College, and her check for the Museum of Natural History, now one of the important museums in the country, is said to have been the first large gift to that institution. Those checks became very familiar to treasurers of many educational enterprises; and they were always given with a certain modesty which added to their value. When a special appeal was made years ago for the Hebrew Technical Institute for Boys in New York, in order to respond promptly Mrs. Herrman sold her horses and carriages, which were costing her \$3,000 a year, and sent an amount equal to their maintenance for a number of years. There was something of the fairy godmother in this large-hearted woman, whose modesty went with her generosity. She dropped gifts by the way, always eager to help, and anxious to keep out of sight. She often left checks in blank envelopes in homes where they were needed, or concealed in a garment which she was giving away a check for \$100. Mrs. Herrman was one of those noble women who sow the seeds of kindness with a tireless hand, and help to make waste places beautiful.

SHOULD STRIKERS BE ALLOWED TO MAINTAIN ORDER?

In The Outlook for June 17 there was an editorial account of an unusual feature of a strike. This was the action of the striking workmen at Grand Rapids, Michigan, in responding to the call issued by the Mayor for volunteers as special policemen. The Outlook commented: "Thus it happens that men on strike are helping to guard the factories in which they have refused to work, and to check the disorder of irresponsible sympathizers. Such workingmen show themselves not only good citizens, whose patriotism takes a practical form, but also the wisest kind of advocates for the advancing cause of the wage-earner." Several citizens of Grand Rapids, for the most part employers of labor, and one journal of the city, the "Michigan Tradesman," have taken exception to our conclusions. The substance of these criticisms is that the facts have been misinterpreted. The story they tell runs about as follows:

That upon the calling of the strike the factories involved were surrounded by pickets—that is, by strikers attempting to discourage others from taking the places that they had abandoned; that these pickets acted as spies upon the strike-breakers and resorted to intimidation; that the manufacturers proved such intimidation in court and secured an injunction against picketing; that the Mayor, having political conditions in mind and sympathizing with the strikers, called for special police, and managed matters so that from a third to a half of these special police were selected from among the strikers; and that thereupon, under the guise of protecting the factories as special policemen, from a third to a half of a hundred strikers were able to defy the injunction, to resume their picketing, and to resort once more to intimidation. One writer likens the matter to setting one crook to catch another, or to the appointment of a committee that is honey-combed with graft to ferret out graft. In support of these statements it is pointed out that the Mayor has attended a labor picnic and that he has announced that he would try to keep out professional strike-breakers, that the courts have instructed the sheriffs to stop guerrilla warfare, and that one special policeman who was a striker has been dismissed. Some of the evidence that certain sympathizers with the employers regard as proof consists merely in affidavits that have been answered by counter-affidavits. It is evident that in Grand Rapids the feeling over this strike runs high and that judgment regarding the actions of men engaged on either side of the strike is warped by prejudice for or against the strikers' cause. It seems clear to us that the strikers not only had a perfect right to be special policemen, but that they are deserving of commendation for acting as police until they show by some overt act that they are unworthy of confidence. There is no more reason for declaring that a striker is out of place as a policeman than for saying that the son of a capitalist is out of place as a member of the militia. The working-man as well as the employer is first of all an American citizen, and when he acts as an American citizen by joining the public forces for preserving order he is not only

rendering the community a service but he is also rendering the highest kind of service to the interests of the group to which he belongs.



THE PUNISHMENT
OF A
WHITE SLAVE TRADER

“As far as I am concerned, this law is going to have such enforcement and application as will be calculated to make a fifteen-year-old girl the most dangerous in this community for these men to tamper with.” These are the words of Judge Landis, delivered in the Federal Court in Illinois in the case of a man named Mazzone, convicted under the Mann White Slave Traffic Act. The story told in that opinion is full of warning to young girls and to those who are responsible for them; it reveals the dangers that lurk in the so-called five-cent theaters; and it gives occasion to point out the fact that the Federal legislation against the white slave traffic, before which young girls and their guardians are by themselves sometimes helpless, is in a degree at least effective. Mazzone, with two other men, had been fulfilling an engagement in a five-cent theater. From this theater he, with his companions, took a fifteen-year-old girl who was in short dresses to a town in Iowa, where, in a respectable house, he introduced the girl as his wife. He had induced the girl to go along with him by persuading her that he could give her employment on the stage. In this town he kept her while he practiced his profession as a member of a traveling vaudeville company. The man's defense was twofold: that the girl was unhappy at home and did not get along very well with her father, and therefore he was performing an act of philanthropy, and that the girl had already fallen into the hands of a boy, and therefore his own offense was minimized. Judge Landis says, in reply, that “if Mazzone had done that thing back in his own home country, there would have been no court trial—he would have been handled in another way.” And the Judge adds: “That girl's age and that girl's dress should have been a protection to her even against these three men that night when they went to that depot.” Just because this sort of thing is done furtively, the conscience of the Nation was

not aroused about it until the revelations of the Immigration Commission gave impetus to Congress. Such a human beast as this defendant can now be punished, and young girls are consequently safer. As Mr. Roosevelt says in an editorial in this issue of *The Outlook*, it is the business of society, and that means ordinary respectable citizens who find the recital of such matters painful, to face the facts and to see to it that their own indifference does not render it difficult to deal with such brutality.

AN ECUMENICAL PEACE CONFERENCE

The recent Lake Mohonk Conference on international arbitration was attended by delegates of the Council of British and German Churches for the fostering of friendly relations between the two peoples. On their departure they addressed a fraternal appeal to the American churches to take the lead in enlarging their transatlantic effort for international peace into an ecumenical movement. They relate how the visits exchanged in 1908 and 1909 by large delegations of the German and the British churches had assumed in each country the form of a great peace propaganda. They quote the indorsements given to it by the heads of Government, the British Premier, Mr. Asquith, declaring that "the promotion of peace and good will among the nations has been specially committed to the care of the representatives of the churches of all countries and creeds;" and the German Chancellor, Prince von Bülow, saying that "as heralds of God's peace on earth the representatives of the Christian churches of England, together with the clergy of other countries, are specially called to work for peace amongst the nations, and to oppose peace-disturbing tendencies." Both in Germany and in Great Britain all Christian bodies had thus been drawn into co-operation to an extent unprecedented. A British Council of over six thousand members and a German Council of over four thousand had been formed for the furtherance of all efforts to promote and preserve permanent peace. The appeal thus far summarized goes on to say that "what the British and German churches have done within their own area ought to be attempted on a

world-scale, and . . . the churches of the United States can attempt such a federation of the churches of Christendom with greater prospect of success than the churches of any other nation." First, because they only would be regarded as sincerely disinterested. Secondly, because "the rest of the world already recognizes the hegemony of America in the advocacy of peace." Thirdly, because of "a greater strength of peace sentiment than prevails in other countries." Lastly, because of the material means already at hand for the requirements of a peace propaganda, especially in the fund created by Mr. Andrew Carnegie and Mr. Edward Ginn. In view of all these considerations, say the delegates of the Anglo-German Council, "we venture to suggest to the churches of the United States that they, having first formed a committee on which every form of Christian organization shall be duly represented, shall convene a Conference of representatives of the Christian churches of all the Christian nations at The Hague, prior to the next Hague Conference, to give expression to the Christian sentiment and conviction as to the relations which ought to prevail between nations." The Outlook believes with the signers of this appeal that the mere summoning of such a Conference would have an incalculable influence for good on the churches themselves, and on public opinion throughout the world. That it would also invigorate future diplomatic efforts to discourage resort to war, and to build up a system of international justice, can hardly be doubted. Nor can it be reasonably doubted that the American churches will respond heartily to so impressive an appeal.

DR. DUNNING RESIGNS

The "Congregationalist" announces the resignation of Dr. A. E. Dunning, who has been for twenty-two years its editor-in-chief. The Rev. H. A. Bridgman, who has been associated with Dr. Dunning in the editorship, succeeds him. The "Congregationalist" is the recognized representative of the Congregational churches in the United States, and comes as near being their official organ as the independent nature of Congregationalism, in which no one can speak with authority for any

one else, permits. Under Dr. Dunning's editorship the "Congregationalist" has easily been in the front rank of church papers in this country. It has represented spiritual faith, intellectual progress, and a catholic spirit. It has been liberal without being polemical, and denominational without being sectarian; and it has been free from that worst form of illiberalism, liberal illiberalism. Those who have known how much Mr. Bridgman has contributed to it will be assured that it will maintain its intellectual and spiritual standards under his administration. Dr. Dunning, who starts at once upon a trip to the Orient, will continue to be a regular contributor to its columns.



THE CAUSE OF DECENCY

The Vice Commission of Chicago has made a notable contribution to the cause of morality and decency—in other words, it has notably helped the advance in good citizenship—by its study and recommendations submitted under the title of "The Social Evil in Chicago."

This volume is a very valuable contribution not merely to the study but to the remedy of what are, on the whole, the most distressing social conditions in our great cities. Such a book can only be melancholy reading. It is like any special treatise on the morbid anatomy of the mind, heart, or body of man. It is not well that such a treatise should be other than unpleasant to read, and it should be read only as a matter of duty; but to shirk reading it because it is unpleasant is just as foolish and, I may add, just as fundamentally immoral as to shirk reading the details of the struggle against cancer and consumption because these diseases also cannot be discussed from the standpoint of origin, actual condition, and remedy without arousing painful emotions. Too many good people actually rather plume themselves on adopting the attitude of Mr. Podsnap towards whatever is disagreeable, and think that they have done their duty by declining to consider the disagreeable facts. It is cowardice not to face the evil and try to remedy it; although I may add that it is loathsome, under pretense of effacing or destroying the evil, to deal with it in

any way that will itself serve merely to gratify emotions that are foul and base. In "Over the Teacups" Oliver Wendell Holmes discusses this matter in commenting on certain foul novels and foul pictures which have been held up to admiration because they are realistic; and he says well that "there is no subject, or hardly any, which may not be treated of at the proper time in the proper place by the fitting person for the right kind of listener or reader," but that these same subjects, which should and must be read when treated of by the physiologist or physician, "will outrage every sense of delicacy if put into highly colored paragraphs by some story-teller whose purpose is to startle rather than to instruct."

With this word of warning, I earnestly recommend serious study of the volume named above. I know of no volume that has recently appeared which would better repay that kind of careful study which is to result in action, and which the student intends thus to turn to account. Specific recommendations are made by the Vice Commission, with most of which I more than cordially agree. In particular I cordially commend the attitude of the Commission in its refusal to follow the time-worn practice of treating the woman's offense as infinitely degrading, mischievous, and wicked, and the same act by her partner as venial. All right-thinking men cordially agree, for instance, that laws should be passed putting responsibility for the care and support of the child of an unmarried mother upon the father until the child's majority, without arbitrarily limiting the amount he has to pay. We cordially agree that the ultimate aim should be not the regulation but the suppression of the evil. That the evil will never be wholly suppressed, just as murder, theft, and forgery will never be wholly suppressed, has no bearing on the question. We cordially agree with the Commission's emphatic protest against the flogging system now in vogue in the courts as regards the unfortunate women brought before them. The Commission feels that old and hardened offenders should be sent to an industrial farm, with hospital accommodations, on an indeterminate sentence, while first offenders, instead of being fined or imprisoned,

should be placed on probation under the care of sympathetic and intelligent women officially connected with the department. Finally, we most emphatically agree with the solemn and indignant judgment passed by the Commission on the men who are responsible for the fall of the women. On the economic side of the question, a side of vast importance, the Commission speaks frankly and demands that the working-girl shall be given at least a living wage. The Commission asks and answers the question whether "the manager of one of our big department stores feels justified in paying a high school girl, who has served nearly one year as an inspector of sales, the beggarly wage of \$4 per week? What is the natural result of such an industrial condition? Dishonesty and immorality, not from choice, but necessity—in order *to live*. We can forgive the human frailty which yields to temptation under such conditions, but we cannot forgive the soulless corporation which arrests and prosecutes this girl—a first offender—when she takes some little articles for personal adornment."

It is a mistake of the gravest kind to believe that any moral question can be completely solved along purely economic lines; but it is an equally grave mistake not to recognize that no movement of moral reform can permanently avail unless it has the proper economic foundation. The corporation or individual capitalist paying a starvation wage to an employee, and especially to a woman employee, is guilty of iniquity, and is an enemy of morality, of religion, and of the State. Let us as a people face the fact that there must be a living wage for every employee; and that the employer who does not give it is a bad citizen.

The Commission emphasizes the need of refusing to allow people to marry who are physically, mentally, and morally unfit to take up the responsibilities of family life, and emphasizes the need of further State and Federal legislation to extend what has already been done by the so-called White Slave legislation. But the Commission recognizes that in addition to law there must be a change in the public conscience, and, especially, both a change in the attitude of the public towards the men who are chiefly respon-

sible for the traffic, and a change in the attitude of these men themselves. To them the Commission speaks as follows:

The end of the battle is not yet for those girls who struggle on alone and unprotected with their more pressing financial problems. The greatest menace is before her—the man. See her as he meets her at the door of her place of employment! See her as she returns to her cheap boarding-house! Huddled away among coarse and vulgar male companions, lonely, underfed, and hungry—not only for food, but for a decent shelter, for a home, for friends, for a sympathetic touch or word; tired from a hard day's toil even to the point of recklessness—starving for honest pleasures and amusements—and with what does she meet? The advances of men without either a spark of bravery or honor, who hunt as their unlawful prey this impoverished girl, this defenseless *child* of poverty, unprotected, unloved, and uncared for as she is plunged into the swirling, seething stream of humanity; the advances of men who are so low that they have lost even a sense of sportsmanship, and who seek as their game an underfed, a tired, and a lonely girl.

In closing this introduction the Commission desires to say one more word to those who support this business of women's souls, whether as barterers of the body, or those who demand the service—the Man. There is only one moral law—it is alike for men and women.

I do not believe that, on the whole, the world has grown worse; I believe it has grown better. The evil set forth by the Commission is very old; while the spirit in which its report is written would not have been understood even as late as a couple of generations ago. But the surest way to stop progress is to lull ourselves into supineness, whether by the cultivation of a flabby optimism, or of that refined shrinking from the sight or knowledge of evil and suffering which may itself be a very unpleasant form of vicious self-indulgence. The more hideous features of the social evil need drastic action. The average murderer is morally considerably better, and the average man guilty merely of manslaughter is infinitely better, than the hideous human brute who makes his living out of ruining young girls; and the law should punish this loathsome creature to the very limit that opinion will sustain. Second only to him in infamy comes the man who tramples the soul of his victim into mire, not to make money, it is true, but to gratify a bestiality which actually takes pride in the misery it causes. Then

come the mass of those whose sin is less, and may be due to any one of a thousand causes; and for these, men and women alike, there is work to be done in warning, in prevention, in redemption. A great deal can be done by law; and when this has been done, there will remain an immense amount which must be done in the field of opinion before it will be possible or desirable to go as far as law must ultimately go.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.



THE IMPENDING ISSUE

Mr. Carnegie is reported by the press to have said: "There can be only one result of all this agitation, and that is that the Court of Commerce will have access to all papers of industrial companies and fix prices liberal and fair to the actual capital invested and fair to the consumer. To this complexion must it come at length." Commenting on this statement, the New York "World" says: "The purpose of the people embodied in the Anti-Trust Law is, not the regulation of monopolies by the Court of Commerce or any other authority, but their destruction and prevention by legal prohibition and penalties. 'The complexion' to which we are coming by process of law is the restoration of competition which will combine the preservation of freedom of commerce with individual right of contract and personal responsibility under the laws."

These two quotations present very clearly the issue which, as we said last week, we hope, and we think, will be presented to the people of the United States in the election of 1912. It is not probable that the issue will be presented as clearly in the platforms of the political parties as in these two quotations, but we hope that the tendency of the two political parties will be sufficiently clear to be understood by the people. The issue is, in a sentence, between the disorganization of industry and the governmental control of organized industry.

We do not believe that we shall go back to unorganized industry and free competition. Over a century ago Stephenson said: "Where combination is possible, competition is impossible." The increasing intelligence and the increasing self-control

of the people is making combination possible where before it was impossible. It is therefore making competition impossible where before it was possible. Insane men cannot combine. Therefore a score of insane men can be controlled by one or two keepers. Unintelligent and undeveloped men cannot combine. Therefore a whole community may be kept under the despotic control of a small oligarchy. If the peasants of Russia could combine, they could very quickly overturn the Russian bureaucracy.

In America we have reached a moral and intellectual stage in which combination is possible; hence labor unions, which are a combination of hand-workers; hence great corporations, which are a combination of brain-workers. These combinations it is not possible to destroy without destroying civilization, because they are an inevitable outgrowth of civilization. The remedy for the evils of organization is better organization. The remedy for the evils of trade-unionism and capitalism is a combination of hand-workers and brain-workers under the regulative control of a still greater organization, namely, the Nation.

The Outlook agrees with Mr. Carnegie and Mr. Gary. There can be only one result of all this agitation, and that is, that a bureau of the Government (not, however, the Court of Commerce) will have access to all papers of industrial companies which tend to monopoly, and will be authorized to fix prices liberal and fair to the actual capital invested and fair to the consumer.



A NEW COLLEGE PLAN

The plan for a normal development of college life and work proposed by President Taylor, of Vassar College, in the June "Educational Review," and referred to in The Outlook for June 24, deserves a fuller consideration and a more accurate account than was then given to it. That account was based on a newspaper report which incorrectly interpreted the plan.

Our institutions for the higher learning have grown too fast to grow wisely. They have been injured by their prosperity. They lack organization. Three or four thousand students gathered on one cam-

pus and under one body of instructors constitute too great a crowd for the best results in training. Class lines are obscured, and in some cases disappear altogether. When they do not, a class of four or five hundred is too large for the development of the best class fellowship. The Greek letter societies furnish, in Cornell, Williams, and Amherst, some substitute for the old college fellowship, but they bring with them some disadvantages—disadvantages so considerable that in some colleges they are prohibited altogether. Under the optional system some of the recitation-rooms are overcrowded. Various devices are resorted to so that the number of attending students may be kept down, and where these do not succeed the professor is obliged to substitute a lecture for that more personal and direct instruction which it is the aim of the true teacher to give. In Yale and Princeton, where attendance at chapel is required, the chapels are inadequate to accommodate all the students; in those universities in which attendance is wholly voluntary, as Cornell and Harvard, and generally the Western universities, while the attendance is very variable, the chapels are not large enough to accommodate all the students, and not infrequently students are turned away for lack of room.

To meet these and other serious disadvantages arising from the present form of college organization, President Taylor proposes a plan which would combine the advantages of the great university and the smaller college by adopting a method something analogous to that of Oxford and Cambridge Universities in England.

Take, for example, Vassar College, with its thousand students. It has ample ground, at present unoccupied, for a second group of college buildings. Here erect and equip a second college, with its separate faculty, its separate chapel, its separate college library, and, as a result, its separate life. One university library might well supplement the two college libraries. Perhaps one great hall might give opportunity for occasional mass-meetings. One university society might serve the social purposes of the university, served in Cambridge and Oxford by the university Unions. University lecturers might be employed, as in Cambridge and Oxford,

for the common benefit of both the colleges. It is possible, too, that one college might give more prominence to mathematics and the sciences, the other to language and literature. The business administration would be one for both colleges; the same water supply and lighting plant would accommodate them both, and one museum and one art gallery would suffice for both. The cost of founding such a second college, where land has not to be procured, Dr. Taylor estimates at \$3,000,000.

The advantages of such a plan are manifest; disadvantages in it we do not readily discern. It would seem to be much more advantageous than either the indefinite extension of the present college or the creation of a new and entirely independent college at some other point. It is well worthy the consideration of any who are interested in helping by pen or purse the progress of the higher learning in the United States.



MENTAL EFFICIENCY

Efficiency is one of the words of the moment. It has caught the popular attention, and stands for a real advance in business methods. A good many people are beginning to ask themselves whether there is also a higher efficiency than they have obtained in their intellectual life. Owing, among other causes, to the vivacity, so to speak, of the climate, to the easy-going habits of most of our preparatory schools, to the still easier-going habits of most American homes in the dealings of parents with children, and to the intellectual vice of excessive newspaper-reading, Americans have developed quickness at the expense of strength, and superficial area of information at the expense of depth of knowledge.

It is easy in any field to count a long list of efficient men and women who can deal strongly with actual conditions; it is not easy in any field to count five or six who have mastered the principles and are qualified to study the philosophy of action in that field. Americans are very much given to short cuts. The ambition of many of them is to "get there;" but the trouble with this short-cut philosophy is that one often "gets there" without preparation for doing the work efficiently when

one has arrived. A great part of the value of attaining an object is securing discipline by the way, and any one who arrives at the end and escapes the discipline finds himself in possession of the material without the skill with which it can be used effectively.

We are all eager to have certain fine qualities of character and of mind, and are ready to pray for them with fervor and frequency; but we are not willing to work for them, and prayer without work is a futile and disappointing exercise. Many people are in the habit of praying for the results of moral education, and then declare that their prayers have not been answered because the qualities are not secured. Mr. Beecher, in his familiar and very effective way, once illustrated this kind of praying by saying that a woman prays for patience, and when the Lord sends her a green Irish maid does not see that her prayer has been answered. There are certain things which Divine Providence cannot give us out of hand; it can only bestow the gift when the recipient is ready to receive it. It is idle to give a beautiful work of art to an ignorant person, or to put the rarest book in the world in the hands of one who has not learned to read.

Mental efficiency, above all things, involves avoidance of short cuts. They are fatal to efficiency, which comes only as the result of discipline. The lists of the best books, authoritative and condensed interpretations of religions, philosophies, sciences, and arts, are useless unless real mental power is put into their study. Nothing in the way of real cultivation can be done to a man or a woman who is not willing to go through the preliminary training. What the humorists, or semi-humorists, mean by "culturine" is precisely the sort of thing which is secured by people who take the short cuts.

Some time ago Mr. Arnold Bennett, the novelist, published a very clever little book, "How to Live on Twenty-four Hours a Day," a kind of practical manual on the use of time. This book he has now supplemented by a sensible essay on "Mental Efficiency."¹ Mr. Bennett is

both interesting and veracious. He does not make the slightest attempt to conceal from his readers the fact that he is laying a difficult task on their shoulders. He makes them no promises, and holds out no inducements which do not involve good, honest co-operation on their part. He reports some interesting letters which he has received from readers on this subject, which betray the consciousness of being mentally less than efficient, and of being quite eager to reinforce mental action by a "course of treatment for the mind." The Sandow of the brain has not arrived, but Mr. Bennett makes some very simple and obvious, but much-needed, suggestions. "The greater number of us," writes one correspondent, "are in a state of semi-slumber, with minds which are only exerted to one-half of their capability." Another correspondent admits the condition and suggests that one of the best cures for mental sedentariness is arithmetic; which for most people beyond school-days would be like the advice to take a hateful medicine. All sorts of pleasant remedies have been proposed, none of which afford the slightest hope, because they are all attempts to get around the inevitable discipline.

Everybody wants a system; nobody thinks it is a matter of his own will, and yet the will is the real thing involved; the system is a minor consideration. One can attain mental efficiency in a hundred different ways. The way is of very small consequence; what is of consequence is the steadiness, push, and resolution which get to the end of the journey. There is no way of learning to think except by thinking; there is no way of securing that invaluable quality of mind which is the first step toward efficiency—concentration—except by concentrating. Many people who try to increase their efficiency make the fatal mistake of setting out with a programme so elaborate that it does not last more than a week. And Mr. Bennett points out the ironic attitude of one's friends towards any attempt at intellectual betterment, the smile which greets the New Year's Day resolution, the announcement that one is going to study French fifteen minutes a day for a year! Safety lies in making a very simple plan, and keeping quiet about it; in resolving to do

¹ Mental Efficiency: Hints to Men and Women. By Arnold Bennett. George H. Doran Company, New York.

something every twenty-four hours, and doing it without any preliminary declaration.

Mr. Bennett attaches a good deal of importance to learning the best prose, or poetry, by heart, and thinks very properly that twenty lines a week for six months would be almost a sure cure for mental debility. Twenty lines a week is a matter of only three lines a day, with one line for margin. It seems a very little thing to do, and it is a very little thing to do; but if one could keep at it eight or ten weeks, the gain in poetry or prose might not be great, but a little path toward efficiency would begin to define itself, and unwilling feet would begin to travel that way, almost unconsciously. Benjamin Franklin, in his account of his endeavors to learn to write, describes his method of reading a paper in the "Spectator," a little later turning it into his own English, and then still later turning it, from memory, as far as possible into Addison's English again. This involved continuity, concentration, and considerable practice in English—all very desirable exercises of the mind. The great thing is that one should keep doing something; it is the lack of continuity that makes methods a mass of fragments. Mr. Arthur Christopher Benson attaches great importance to keeping a full diary; but that, Mr. Bennett points out, is of questionable value. Some diaries are simply elaborate records of one's moods and tenses. A journal is safer, because a journal usually introduces many other people. A correspondent who calls himself "An Oxford Lecturer" writes to Mr. Bennett: "Till a man has got his physical brain completely under control—suppressing its too-great receptivity, its tendencies to reproduce idly the thoughts of others, and to be swayed by every passing gust of emotion—I hold that he cannot do a tenth part of the work that he would then be able to perform with little or no effort. . . . Mental efficiency can be gained by constant practice in meditation—by concentrating the mind, say, for but ten minutes daily, but with absolute regularity, on some of the highest thoughts of which it is capable. Failures will be frequent, but they must be regarded with simple indifference and dogged perseverance in the path chosen.

If the path be followed without intermission even for a few weeks, the results will speak for themselves."

This is the gist of the whole matter; a plain signboard on the road which he who runs may read: There is no short cut to the mastery and free use of the body. Only by persistent exercise, which may be slight in time and moderate in quantity, but which must be regular and persistent, is it to be obtained. In like manner, one gets the free use of his mind only by persistent exercise. There is no need of overtaxing the mind, of laying out a crushing programme; there is need of good sense and will-power.



THE SPECTATOR

On the face of it a church organ looks such an ingenuous affair, making no bones of its pipes (not hiding them in a case, as the piano hides its hammers and strings), that the Spectator had been wont to regard it as of a monumental simplicity. A "box of whistles," and air to pipe upon them. What more? Recent events have sharply disabused him of the innocent notion. It began with church. One Sunday, in the midst of a congregational hymn, the Spectator became unhappily aware that something was wrong with the accompaniment. At the end of a stanza it became evident *what* was wrong. High E was stuck—went on sounding shrilly through all the modulations of the harmony. The organist put on the full power of the organ in the effort to drown it out, and somehow the hymn was carried to an end. But, alas! when the organ was stopped, high E did not. Half through the long prayer its slender shriek persisted, boring, it seemed, through the ear to the brain. And this though the organist could be heard banging distractedly about inside the organ in frantic effort to throttle it. At length he succeeded, and silence, seemingly and healing, fell upon that outraged congregation. The Spectator had been wondering how long it would take to drive a man mad by the simple prolongation of one musical note. However, the organ had by no means exhausted its resources. After the First Lesson followed an anthem. The Spectator remembers it for the lovely

contralto recitative, "I sought the Lord and he heard me, He heard me—" In the midst of it there came a report from the organ loft. The accompaniment abruptly died away. And for the rest of that dreadful service the organ was obstinately mute.

On his way out the Spectator bethought him to climb the stairs and ask the organist what it was all about. The wretched man's face was streaked with dust from his agitated fumbings inside the organ case. His nerves were manifestly on edge. The Spectator could not make much of his technical jargon, but it seems that in thrashing about to choke off high E he had injured something, and some "bung" controlling the air supply had accordingly blown out. The Spectator voiced his stupid impression that, since organs were blown by motors, there wasn't much to go wrong with them. The organist fairly snorted in his indignation. "Nothing to go wrong? Why, man, have you any conception of the elaborate mechanism that makes it possible for one pair of hands to play a whole orchestra of instruments together? It is no exaggeration to say that the organist of St. Sulpice, Paris, is playing with hands and feet and sometimes with his nose no less than seven thousand separate instruments when he sits at his console. Nothing to go wrong? Good heavens! Did you ever see the inside of an organ?"

Upon the Spectator's chastened admission that he never had, the organist led him firmly to a little door and through it into a dim grotto, a weird grove of stalagmites, some of them towering far above his head and losing themselves in the upper darkness. His guide flashed the beam of an electric candle here and there among the wilderness of pipes—pipes of wood, pipes of tin, big pipes, little pipes, pipes of all manner of grotesque shapes. "When you say, 'Not much to get out of order,'" said he, his voice echoing oddly among the stalagmites, "you forget the action of the organ. You don't suppose that my fingers actually work the levers that open the valves that sound all these pipes! Heavens, no! Why, some of these big

wooden fellows have to be fed something like a hundred and eighty pounds of air a second to make them speak. To work the lever would take, not the touch of a man's finger, but the blow of a man's fist. When I press a key, I merely make an electrical connection; the power does the rest. And where you have electrical connections and delicately adjusted levers and valves, there's room for infinite variety of accident. Why, when a really great organ is played, I believe it is customary to have an expert standing ready all the time within the case, simply looking for trouble."

"You see," he went on, "these pipes are not fixed in place—they are not fixtures, I mean. Speaking of accidents, the worst one I ever heard of happened in the chapel of a college town. There was to be some sort of semi-religious meeting in connection with commencement week. The organist, a tremendous flourisher at the keyboard, was anything but popular with the students. On this particular night he seated himself—the organ was behind the pulpit—with more than usual gesticulation and tender preliminary massagings of his slender white hands. At length, having run his fingers wildly through his musician's shock of hair, he poised them effectively over the manuals for the attack. They fell. Great Cæsar, what a sound! Discord run mad! From the bass a squeak, from the treble a heavy rumble! The audience gasped in pain. The organist shrank quivering on his seat. Once more, adjusting his glasses and taking a sharp look at the notes, he tried. A sound as of foul fiends let loose! The playful students had *re-arranged the pipes*. That's absolutely the worst thing I ever knew of happening to an organist."

Having penetrated so far the true inwardness of the organ, the Spectator had his appetite whetted for more. The next time he found himself within reach of a great organ factory he made it a point to go in to see the instruments in process. The place sounded something like a saw-mill and something like Symphony Hall while the orchestra is tuning up. All

manner of vagrant notes went wandering about the place, competing with the hysterical shriek of the circular saw. It looked, or at least the part the Spectator first saw looked, like a carpenter's shop. Only there were no nails about. The building of the vast square wooden pipes (or little ones either) must be accomplished, it seems, without the help of a single nail or screw, as metal would mar the tone as surely as a flaw in the casting breaks the voice of a bell. Glue alone must be trusted to hold together these long flues of straight, knotless California pine. This is one reason why a leaky roof agrees so ill with an organ. It dissolves the glue.



The exceeding bigness of the biggest of these flues will be better appreciated for the telling of a story current in the organ factory, to the effect that a horse was once driven through one of the great wooden pipes of the St. Louis monster organ. But the Spectator remembers that the "horse" turned out on inquiry to be—a Shetland pony! And even for that the Spectator will not vouch. So much for the colossus of pipes. At the other end of the scale the tiniest pipe in an organ is not much bigger than, perhaps scarcely so big as, a lead pencil. And it is only as a matter of convenience, only that it may not be lost altogether, that it is made even so long as that. The real pipe, the part that does the speaking, is little more than the length of one's finger-nail. "And yet," said the gluey but amiable fellow detailed to show the Spectator around, "that little fellow can make itself heard above the bellow of the biggest pipe in the factory. Shrill, you know."



The Spectator was duly inducted into the mysteries of rolling sheet metal into round pipes and the nice soldering which leaves them everywhere of a uniform thickness. But what amused him vastly more was the voicing of the pipes. In a corner by himself sat a man trying the voices of pipes of all sizes and conditions. He had compressed air on tap with which to make them speak and give themselves away. Some were husky, some squeaky,

some sweet. It seems that the length and size of the pipe determine the pitch and power of the tone, but not its sweetness. All sorts of delicate dodges are resorted to to produce beauty of tone. The terminology is oddly physiological. The opening through which the pipe speaks is known as the "mouth." If the tone is faulty, the voicer may cut notches in the air-slit, which he calls "teeth," or glue on side-pieces known as "lips," or a bit of wood below the opening, denominated a "beard." By patient, artful experimenting the voicer tinkers at the pipe until by and by it speaks mellifluously, fitly for the great pipe chorus of the organ.



Of the complications connected with the action of an organ the Spectator does not propose to speak, for the simple reason that, glib as was his informant, he got hopelessly entangled in the maze of stick-ers, rollers, squares, trackers, etc., which are enlisted every time a key is pressed in order that air may pass from the wind-chest into a particular pipe. Suffice it to say that all these little arrangements have to be very nicely adjusted, and that the making of them and of the delicate valves of softest sheepskin is largely left to the deft hands of women. The Spectator was vastly interested, if somewhat concerned, to hear that when all the hundreds or thousands of pipes of an organ have been built, tuned, their voices properly trained and set in place; when the motor running the bellows is installed; when the complicated action has all been harnessed up—in short, when the organ is finished—it sometimes declines to be played. He is told that the great organ of Weimar resisted the most well-meant efforts to adjust, repair, and tune. It had to be taken apart and rebuilt. As for the organ in St. Gudule, Brussels, it is said to have been rebuilt no less than three times. This puts the Spectator in mind of a young mechanical draughtsman he used to know. He had made drawings for all the parts of a piece of machinery, and they had been cast and assembled. Next day they were to be put together and the machine tested. Said the draughtsman nervously: "The vital question is, Will it go? *Or shall I?*"

THE FUTURE OF CHINA

The author of the first of the two articles here presented is a civil engineer who has lived in China fifteen years. His writing on aspects of China and of China's relations to other nations has been of such a quality as to make an impression upon European officials. The vigorous opinions which he here expresses will undoubtedly call forth equally vigorous dissent. But they are supported by so wide an experience and such forceful evidence that mere dissent from them will not convince those who are impressed by his article. The readers of The Outlook have no occasion to be introduced to the writer of the second article, Mr. George Kennan. It is sufficient to say that Mr. Kennan has special knowledge of Japan and Russia, and this knowledge gives particular value to his opinions on Chinese matters.—THE EDITORS.

WANTED—A MASTER OF MEN

BY CHARLES DAVIS JAMESON

TO make clear the utter hopelessness of renaissance in the Chinese as a nation until several generations have passed I must first give a slight sketch of Chinese history.

China and her peoples have always been held as an example of a nation which, by its type of government, its laws, and the characteristics of its peoples, has for thousands of years been able to resist the general laws governing the rise and fall of nations. That China has preserved its entity, more or less, for ages, while other nations of more vitality, strength, and knowledge have been born, lived, and died, cannot be denied; but that this has been due to any special Chinese characteristic, of either people or government, is absurd. This length of life has been due solely to location, environment, and climate—nothing else.

From the beginning until the nineteenth century China was as isolated from the world at large as if located in Mars. On the north were the barren plains of Mongolia and the sandy waste of the Gobi Desert, beyond which stretched the interminable and uninhabited forests of Siberia; on the west the impassable mountains—the Roof of the World; on the south swamps, jungle, and the Indian Ocean; and on the east the Pacific, an impassable barrier.

Thus carefully guarded by nature from the outside world, with a country of many waterways, a climate similar to that of America from Maine to Florida, a rich

and varied soil, lending itself kindly to cultivation, with all natural resources in the greatest abundance (iron, coal, gold, silver, copper), it was possible for China to work out her own civilization, laws, government, literature, and economic life. But even under these conditions there was a natural ebb and flow in her national vitality, and dynasties changed, and twice the country has been conquered. The only possible point of attack in the years past has been from the north, the country of cold, deserts, and scanty vegetation.

The first people to gain control were wandering bands of snout-faced Tartars; and later the Mongols—a poor, starved, hungry lot of nomads, with nothing to lose in fight and all to gain. The Mongol dynasty lasted until the conquerors became rich, fat, and soft with good living, and lost their fighting abilities. Then appeared the leader, a Chinese monk, Chu Huen Chang, a fighter and a leader of men. The whole of China rose, and the Mongols were no more south of the Great Wall.

Thus began the Ming dynasty, the most brilliant of all Chinese dynasties. The country expanded to the east and south and north. Armies were sent to Turkestan and as far as Persia. All gave way before them. At last came peace and prosperity, arts and crafts and literature, flourishing as never before. The fighting spirit died. The central government lost its grip on the provinces. Internal troubles began—palace conspiracies and revolutions. North of the Great Wall

were the Manchus, a small, half-civilized crowd, only a few generations from nomads. They longed for the treasure and lands of their fat, lazy, vainglorious neighbor, and watched for an opening. It came at last. There were two parties in the nation fighting against each other. Neither side had sufficient vitality to down the other, and neither had much liking for real fighting. The leader against the then Emperor opened the gates in the Great Wall and invited the Manchus to help him win the throne. This was their opportunity. They conquered the Emperor's party, then conquered the other party, and established themselves on the Dragon Throne in 1644. The fighting went on for many years before all China submitted, but at last all came under the Manchu rule, and are there to-day.

The inevitable result followed: years of peace and commerce destroyed all militant spirit, and the Manchus became more or less absorbed by the Chinese. The official class became rotten to the core, corruption of every kind was fostered; and then appeared the foreigner with modern arms and ships of war.

From the beginning of China's history until the coming of the Westerner all the peoples with whom the Chinese came in contact were inferior to them in all that tends toward civilization. And not only in civilization but in numbers. Not all the Manchus numbered, as many as the Chinese of a single province. Consequently the civilization of the Chinese was their own. They took nothing from other nations, and were never forced by competition to exert themselves along lines of improvement. They knew not the existence of anything superior to what they had. They could imagine nothing better. Anything not Chinese was unworthy of notice. They knew everything and were everything; and in their ignorance they feared no nation.

There was a rude awakening when, in 1860, the French and English landed a few thousand men¹ at Taku, captured the forts, and, with but little fighting, drove

the Chinese army, a huge mob, before them and took possession of Peking, burning and utterly destroying the beautiful summer palace, "Yuenmingyuen." The Chinese paid and the foreign troops departed, but the Ministers Plenipotentiary and Envoys Extraordinary of all civilized nations had now the right of residence in Peking and the right of audience with the Imperial Son of Heaven. A fear of foreign force settled on the Imperial Government, and diplomacy, not arms, has since been the order of the day.

Chinese diplomacy means nothing but putting off the evil day—the paying of any price to insure quiet for to-morrow (leaving the day after to look out for itself), anything to gain time; never making a determined effort to cure disease by a surgical operation, but merely taking a sedative for temporary relief. All civilized nations were there, and all wished some concession. Thus for forty years China has been kept intact by playing the different nations one against the other. Each has been in fear that some other would acquire an advantage, thus disturbing the balance of influence. Each has wanted much, and thus they have neutralized each other. The integrity of China has been but as a pole standing erect upon the surface of things, which, if left to itself, would fall. Its uprightness has been maintained solely by the pull of the different foreign nations. Each has a string of wants fastened to this pole, and they all pull together.

The Chinese-Japanese War in 1894 made plain the hopelessness and rottenness of China and the Chinese people from a *collective* and *national* view-point. Her Imperial Majesty the late Dowager Empress, one of the greatest women of history, was all that held things together, and after her the deluge. She had a following of all the best men in Chinese officialdom. The best were far from perfect statesmen, but they were devoted to the Empress, and thus pulled together. There was a definite head and a leader—not an enlightened one from a modern standpoint, but a strong woman doing her best to save the dynasty and the country. With her death came chaos. The only two prominent statesmen in all China with ability and desire to serve their country for

¹ There were 13,000 British and 7,000 French. In 1900 the combined forces of the allies numbered about 17,000. This little army forced its way from Tientsin to Peking, eighty-five miles, driving the foreign-drilled army of China and the Boxer mob before them, with but little fighting.—THE EDITORS.

the good of the country were at once shelved by Prince Chun, the Regent, and all the important positions are held either by old men in their dotage, as Prince Ching and most of the Grand Council, or young princes of the present reigning family, ignorant of all things modern and filled with conceit, arrogance, and a desire to fill their purses regardless of the effect on their country.

The Prince Regent is a man of small ability and of no experience in the handling of affairs of state. He is much under the influence of his father's wife, whose one idea is to make the family rich at any cost. In statesmanship the Regent is a man-afraid-of-himself, whose weakness and vacillation have been such that all the officials stand in deadly fear of him—a man of no settled policy or conviction, who orders this or that done, and then, by the counsel of the next adviser, degrades the official who is doing as ordered. What is the result? The few strong men are out of office. No official dares assume the slightest responsibility or to act decisively on any question. The main object of the officials is to hold office; and to do this with safety no question of international policy must reach a definite conclusion and no final agreements must ever be signed unless they contain some condition upon which argument is still possible. There never was a time during the last fifty years when the Imperial Government of China was so headless and Chinese officialdom so invertebrate.

The much-talked-of modern army of China is a farce. It in no way equals the same army of seven years ago when under the control of his Excellency Yuan Shih Kai. The officers are few and inexperienced, the discipline slack, the pay uncertain, and the whole organization permeated with an unrest that may at any moment turn it into a dangerous mob. As an army of defense it is useless, but as a mob it would be a terror among the native Chinese.

Financially the Chinese Government is approaching a crisis. The credit limit for foreign loans is about reached unless better and more speedy arrangements are devised for financing prospective railways and the natural resources of the country. At present nothing is being done to

remedy these evils beyond preliminary agreements which never arrive, and much vain talk.

The inauguration of the National Assembly will only increase the present confusion. A few men in power who do not realize the needs of the country are less of a menace than several hundred. The menace of the few is negative, while that of the many is positive and quick moving, and may with ease run into mob law. While a very few may, in a vague way, realize the needs of the country, no two will agree on the remedy, and none will take the personal risk of attempting the cure. While they talk the opportunity to save will be lost.

One of the most remarkable characteristics of the Chinese people is their absolute inability to *combine* in a successful manner for any purpose. As bankers, merchants, contractors, etc., they are a success from both a commercial and an ethical standpoint. No people are commercially more honest or have a more exalted idea of the sacredness of a contract—either written, verbal, or merely implied—than the Chinese merchant, banker, or contractor of any kind, unless contaminated by dealings with unreliable foreign *hongs* at the open ports. The non-official word of a Chinese is usually as good as his bond, and his bond is as good as the wealth of his family. In fifteen years of dealing with Chinese merchants and contractors of all sorts I have never found them maliciously doing work contrary to the specifications or attempting to break their contract even if it was a losing one for them. But when the business becomes a limited corporation and the executive is a board of directors, everything goes to pieces. This division of responsibility, together with the fact that most of the capital invested does not belong to the directors, destroys all sense of commercial rectitude and of personal responsibility. It is a notorious fact that hardly one single Chinese limited company has been a success from the standpoint of the shareholders. This includes the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company, Chinese mining companies, electric lighting plants, water-works, Chinese cotton factories, etc., etc. The railways that are managed solely by the Chinese are soon

allowed to run down, and no funds are set aside for repairs and improvements.¹

Since the Chinese took over the Peking-Hankow Railway from the Belgians in December, 1908, no regular repairs or replacements have been made. The profits have been squandered, and both roadbed and rolling stock are going to ruin. The company has just been making vain efforts to float a large foreign loan for the repair of this railway. If the people are unable to combine with success to manage the affairs of a small corporation, how much less could they combine to run the affairs of the country?

The present system of government is hopeless. The Central Government has but little hold on the provinces, and fears them. The taxes and revenues are practically farmed out, and but a small percentage of the amount taken from the people ever reaches the Central Government.

The whole effort is to get money at any cost, even if the source of revenue is eventually destroyed thereby. As an example, when the railway from Peking to Kalgan, one hundred and forty-five miles north from Peking, was opened, the amount of traffic and profits was large. What did the Chinese Government do but at once establish six or more *likin* (Chinese customs) stations on this line and collect customs duties on all traffic! Within a few months the cars were running empty and the goods were being transported in the good old-fashioned way—packed on mules and camels.

The people have no confidence in the officials or the Regent, and during the last two years this lack of confidence has broadened into utter contempt. The only thing that holds the "powers that be" in place is the lack of a leader for the people. As yet not one has appeared in China. The people have no confidence in any of the so-called revolutionary leaders, as not one of them has shown any ability beyond that of getting money from the people and spending it in safety abroad.

There is no love of country or patriotism. All the present talk of this by the

half-educated or not half-educated new Chinese—this cutting off of fingers, etc., for love of their country—is nothing but the hysterical vaporings of badly brought up children. No reform can come without much hard, unselfish fighting. The Chinese as a nation are not fighters, and never have been. They are commercialism personified, with only most material ideals.

Their social structure has been such that they have never been taught to obey, and they have no traditions of loyalty beyond their immediate family, which tradition has been done away with as much as possible by the Christian missionaries.

There have been no hereditary nobles or ruling class, and no natural leaders of the people. There is no caste feeling, and any one is eligible for any official position, provided he conforms to the rules of the game. Until within a few years the rules required a certain standard in Chinese literature, that is, an educational requirement, and men who stood high in the final examinations were looked up to with respect and admiration. The knowledge required was of no practical use, but ability to acquire it marked the man as superior to one without this ability, and gave him much prestige by tradition. These old examinations have been done away with, and there is nothing to replace them.¹

The great reforms in Japan were due entirely to the ruling class. The common people were attached to the clans of the different nobles, and by generations of tradition were loyal and obedient. Japan was a fighting nation, with all the glorious traditions of loyalty and self-sacrifice. Commerce was much lower in the scale. The reform began at the top; the high ideals of the leaders, with the virile militant spirit of the followers and their great love of country, made a perfect working machine. The Japanese had leaders, and were led by them. China has none; neither has it any traditions of self-sacrificing love of country. Its whole history

¹ The public school system, which was well designed and well started some nine years ago by Dr. C. D. Tenney, now Chinese Secretary of the American Legation, did well while under his control, but since it has been under Chinese control the primary and secondary schools throughout the country have disappeared, and the present generation of children are getting no education—neither the old nor the new. In the larger cities the best children's schools are under Japanese teachers.

¹ What has just been said does not apply fully to the Imperial railways of North China, as the bonds of this railway are owned in England and the maintenance and operation are in charge of English civil engineers, and their work is good.

shows that it has never been a unit, but has been composed of weakly connected provinces, all jealous of each other. The north and south, in addition, have always been at variance. Nothing but the hammer of the gods can arouse them and beat them into coherent action. The operation will be most severe, and China as a nation may die under the hammer; but to the Chinese people the result will be good. The only thing that possibly could now save China would be the appearance of a strong, virile leader who by his character and ability could make the people forget their own petty commercial selves and hammer into them the idea of doing something without expecting an immediate money return.

China, with her wealth, natural resources, and millions of hard-working, industrious individuals, is too great a prize to be lost for lack of a master. The master will arrive, and China's millions will be hammered into shape.

Japan is a perfectly organized machine for war. She is young, virile, militant. Her people are few and her natural resources and acres fewer. She needs people, land, and wealth—and what she needs and must have lies at her feet, practically helpless. It is merely a question of time when she will take possession. Every little detail has been attended to—nothing has been forgotten. There will be no hurry, and probably but little shock. Korea was to be independent; Korea was to be guarded by Japan; and then in a few months Korea was Japan. The open door was guaranteed in Manchuria, and China's sovereignty was to be maintained. The door is open, but the door-keeper is a Japanese. Not even China is allowed to build one mile of railway in this, her own country. No foreign capital can enter Manchuria except under Japanese direction. This all applies to the southern and richer half of Manchuria. In the north Russia is even more dictatorial, and the Chinese Government does nothing. Russia and Japan have an agreement by the terms of which each agrees to assist the other against an infringement of their alleged rights. China's sole right in Manchuria is to protest and protest, and then submit to new demands. Both Russia and Japan may

increase the number of their troops in Manchuria to any extent and call them railway guards or guards against the plague—or call them nothing; China cannot stop them, and not one foreign nation is going to interfere. The Japanese are in every part of China proper. They understand the working of the Chinese mind much better than any Westerner ever can, and they are able to get nearer to the Chinese. They are there as small traders, contractors, or anything; but nothing of importance happens which is not at once known to the Japanese Government. In Peking there are thousands, and many of them not only well-trained soldiers of the Japanese Reserve, but some of them commissioned officers. There is not an influential official in any of the Chinese Government boards who is not more or less under Japanese influence, and probably not a Governor's *yamen* in the country in which there is not a Japanese agent. This influence has successfully blocked for nearly two years all efforts of Germany, France, England, and America to finance Chinese railways, and is now apparently obstructing with equal success the consummation of the loans for the regulation of Chinese currency until the terms of these loans have been so modified that Japan is satisfied.¹ Nothing is too small for the Japanese to overlook, and nothing too large for them to study. This surveillance of things Chinese by the Japanese is nothing new. The study of the details of finally acquiring China has been going on for many years.

For example, sixteen years ago, at the time of the Chinese-Japanese War, the Army of North China was the only force available for defense. The Quartermaster-General of all this army had held his position for some years. Through his hands passed all the army supplies, food, clothes, arms, ammunition, etc., etc. He was the one man who knew how many actual men could be put in the field and exactly what the outfit of the army was. He was a most capable man, no amount of work was too much for him, and he

¹ Since writing the above the agreements for both the railway loans and the currency loan have been signed. But the terms are such that the control of all these millions is entirely in Chinese hands, and Japan is satisfied.

took charge of everything—a remarkable man, and a good Chinese scholar. Near the close of the war it was discovered that this wonderful man was a Japanese, a devoted subject of the Emperor of Japan, and that the Japanese Government had always been as well posted on the unreality of the Chinese army as had its Quartermaster-General. He had devoted years to this work for the good of Japan. He was executed, but he had made a good fight for his country, well worth the price he paid.

We must remember that the Japanese and Chinese are more or less the same race. Their written language is much the same. They think along the same lines, and can understand each other in a way never possible between the white and yellow races. Among the Japanese now in China many have Chinese wives. They intermarry on a basis of equality, and the results of these marriages are good and the offspring are always Japanese subjects. China has now a great fear of Japan, knowing her power; but they are rapidly coming together. The white races have clearly shown that they will have nothing to do with either nation, upon an equal footing, and that all they want from China is profit. China has much that Japan requires—people, acres, resources; and Japan will supply what China needs—efficient, economical, strong government and leadership.

One cannot set an hour or a day for the final move to be made, but we may be sure that until the end each well-thought-out move of the Japanese will have all the appearance of having been forced upon them by circumstances over which they (the Japanese) had no control. Any little happening may precipitate the affair. If from the plague or famine, or any other cause, serious rioting should take place in Peking or Tientsin, and the other foreign Legations become alarmed, I think we may safely say that Japan would at once assume control. The foreign nations would protest—but after the fact. Japan is not only the one nation represented in Peking which has sufficient troops and equipment for at any moment taking entire charge of the whole city, but she is undoubtedly the only nation whose representatives in China have the thorough

preparedness that will allow them to act at once when the moment arrives. Other nations will enrich the cable companies and wait. It is not necessary that serious troubles should occur in Peking. Let them occur in any part of China, and Japan will take charge. And what will the other nations do? Protest, call conventions, and talk. There will be, or is, an understanding with Russia which will prevent any active objections from that country. That Japan and Russia must at some time in the future try conclusions as to the superiority of the white or the yellow race is true; but that will not be until after the Chinese-Japanese combination has been accomplished.

As to England, France, or Germany, not one of them can afford to try force in the Far East with Japan. They cannot get sufficient war-ships or land forces there, and would not dare to if it were possible. They all have their own houses in Europe to keep in order. As for America, its people would not allow a war with Japan to save China. We will let it go at that, and not analyze the “perfect preparedness” of the American nation for war. The giving a strong government to China, the opening up of the country, and the increased commercial value of China under Japan would much more than overcome any imagined sentiment we might have for the integrity of China. In the meantime the Japanese-American war, the Russo-Chinese troubles, the Mexican-Japanese alliance, the great reforms to be made in China to-morrow, will be well worked in the international press, that Western nations may have something to think of, or at least think they are thinking.

Always to-morrow. But on some “to-day” the world will realize that while Japan has been making all these talked-of preparations to capture the United States, she has taken control of China and united the yellow race. And then what? The taxes paid by the Chinese may be reduced one-half, the revenues trebled or quadrupled, the government of the country, in which the Chinese will have a great share, administered in a firm, businesslike manner that will command the respect of the world, extraterritoriality abolished, and the yellow race received into the family of nations upon a national

equality. But even now, if China can put forward a keen, strong, unselfish leader, one in whom the people will have confi-

dence, she can yet work out her own glorious salvation. May God grant the quick coming of this "Master of Men"!

CAN CHINA BECOME A STRONG NATION?

BY GEORGE KENNAN

MR. JAMESON'S statement with regard to the isolation of the Chinese and the effect of such isolation upon the development of their civilization is unquestionably true. Sidney E. Gulick, in his "Evolution of the Japanese," explains the national peculiarities of the latter in the same way, and says that in mental and moral make-up they did not differ originally from the rest of mankind. They have become what they are through geographical isolation, absence of economic and political competition, and the modifying influence of such natural conditions as climate, topography, and soil.

The Chinese, moreover, were profoundly affected by two historical events that had no parallel in Japan, namely, the early abolition of the feudal system (in the third century B.C.) and the adoption of the writings of Confucius and Mencius as the sole basis of a national system of education (175 A.D.). Both of these events had a powerful determining influence upon Chinese development, and they are entitled to more prominence, I think, than Mr. Jameson has given to them. If Japan had abolished the feudal system two thousand years ago, as China did, she might not have had the discipline, the courage, the loyalty, and the spirit of self-sacrifice that enabled her to transform herself so quickly into a modern State; and if for seventeen hundred years she had discarded all knowledge except that contained in the Confucian classics, as China did, she would have found it very difficult, if not impossible, to assimilate so quickly the learning of the West. Her rapid transformation was largely due to the national virtues that feudalism fostered, and to the thinking ability that a broader and more rational system of education developed.

Mr. Jameson's unfavorable opinion of the existing Chinese army is shared by many competent observers. In a letter to the "Jiji Shimpō," of Tokyo, a Japanese staff officer recently criticised Chinese military methods as follows: "The programme is to have two divisions of troops for every province, exclusive of Manchuria; but, so long as a large measure of option is left to the viceroys in this matter, it is hopeless to expect that the scheme will be carried out thoroughly or efficiently. At present the only troops in actual existence are four divisions organized by Yuan Shih Kai, two organized by Tuan Fang and the late Chang Chih Tung, and certain brigades in various provinces. The whole does not constitute anything like a uniform or efficient army. Then, again, the difficulty of applying the conscription system is a serious obstacle. Even if the Chinese Government were willing to make this great innovation, it would be exceedingly arduous to carry out, in the absence of anything like a thorough system of registration. There is also the question of weapons. These have to be provided at present by the arsenals in Newchwang and Shanghai; but the two arsenals are quite inadequate to meet the demands even of the present comparatively small army. Altogether, much time must still elapse before China can be expected to possess a fully organized and thoroughly equipped force of anything like the proposed dimensions."

The opinion of this Japanese expert is probably near the truth. The Japanese have good judgment, as well as opportunities to know. Prince Ito told me, nearly five years ago, that he had urgently advised the Chinese Government to en-

gage a large body of competent military instructors from Europe, to have them train the necessary number of Chinese officers, and then to commit to these Chinese officers the organization of a national army on a uniform plan. The high officials of the Chinese Government, he said, expressed lip approval of this advice, but made no attempt whatever to act upon it.

Mr. Jameson says that "one of the most remarkable characteristics of the Chinese people is their absolute inability to combine in a successful manner for any purpose." He admits that Chinese business men, as individuals, are capable and honest, but he maintains that "when the business becomes a limited corporation, and the executive is a board of directors, everything goes to pieces." I have no doubt that Chinese boards of directors are often untrustworthy and inefficient. Mr. Jameson, in the practice of his profession, has had abundant opportunities to know, and I accept his judgment without question. I doubt, however, whether the sweeping statement that the Chinese people "are unable to combine in a successful manner for any purpose" is well founded. In their trade guilds they have shown a capacity for co-operative organization and action that would not be discreditable to an American "trust." Many of these guilds, as, for example, the Bankers' Guild and the Piece-Goods Guild, which are made up of a large number of individuals, act harmoniously for the best interests of all, and are very useful and powerful.

The Chinese combine successfully in ways to which they are accustomed, but they fail when they attempt to combine in new and unfamiliar ways. Corporations of the Western type are an innovation in China, but I see no good reason to doubt that Oriental business men will eventually learn to manage them as well as they now manage their professional guilds. Mr. Jernigan, formerly American Consul-General in Shanghai, has a high opinion of the combining power of the Chinese. "For centuries," he says, "the Chinese have taken the lead in what in the twentieth century are called 'combines.' These combines, although of simpler organization, are as efficacious in the commercial life of China as are the 'trusts'

in that of Western nations. . . . In recognition of the advantages of commercial organization no people have surpassed them. There is not a branch of commercial business conducted by Chinese that is not organized in all the essentials of success, and there is no mercantile organization which exerts as much influence in the commercial affairs of the Empire as the guild."¹

Mr. Jameson's assertion that there is "no love of country or patriotism" in China seems to me to need qualification. The Chinese, it is true, have hitherto been lacking in what may be called national patriotism, but the deficiency has been due to the absence of national self-consciousness rather than to the lack of capacity for patriotism. National self-consciousness is now coming into being, and such phenomena as the formation of "humiliation societies" in many parts of the Empire indicate that a national patriotic feeling is becoming general. The Chinese, it is true, as compared with the Japanese, have shown little disposition to sacrifice selfish material interests for the sake of national advancement, but I believe, nevertheless, that there are among the "new Chinese" many sincere and disinterested patriots.

Mr. Jameson's prediction that China will ultimately fall under the domination of Japan may come true, but I cannot agree with him in the belief that the latter Power is now taking active measures to bring such a state of affairs about. The Japanese, at present, have no intention of acquiring political control in China, although they may be considering it, among other remote possibilities of the future. Their attitude toward China is something like ours toward Cuba. We are perfectly sincere in saying that we don't mean to take over Cuba; but we are well aware, nevertheless, that at some time in the future it may become necessary or expedient for us to do so. Japan, in her international relations, has always shown good faith, and it is hardly fair, on the basis of any facts that I know, to accuse her of secretly planning to do something that she declares she has no intention of doing. Events may

¹"China's Business Methods" and "China in Law and Commerce," by T. R. Jernigan. (Pp. 104 and 246.) The Macmillan Company, New York, 1905.

so shape themselves in the future as to make control of China necessary to Japan, just as events may so shape themselves as to make control of Cuba, Mexico, and all Central America necessary to the United States. But we are not now planning such an extension of our territory; neither is Japan planning the annexation of Manchuria or the domination of China.

I share Mr. Jameson's pessimism with regard to the ability of the Chinese to make themselves into a strong nation in the near future. They may succeed in doing it ultimately, if they are let alone long enough, but they have not yet begun to lay the foundation stones of national power. Adoption of railways, electric lights, telegraphs, and telephones is not national transformation. The reforms that China needs, and that must make the basis of a reorganized State, are these:

1. National centralization of authority and power. The Empire at present is a collection of loosely associated satrapies which are semi-independent, and which merely pay tribute to the Central Government. Each satrap or viceroy coins money, levies and collects taxes, organizes and drills troops, and governs generally on a plan of his own, getting as much money from the people as he can, by means of taxes, "squeezes," *likin* duties, adulteration of the coinage, etc., and turning over as little as he can to the Central Government, in the form of a contribution to the national treasury.

2. Financial reorganization, including a uniform national system of taxation; a national system of keeping and auditing public accounts; the formation of a national budget; the payment of fixed salaries to all officials, including viceroys; the total abolition of the "squeeze" system, which is nothing more than official "graft," made semi-legitimate by tolerance and custom; and, finally, a uniform national coinage, based on some definite and immutable standard.

3. Military reorganization. The control of military affairs must be taken wholly out of the hands of the viceroys and committed to a competent and responsible War Department, which shall frame uniform national regulations for the conscription, organization, drilling, and arming of soldiers, which shall engage foreign

advisers and instructors enough to train an adequate body of Chinese officers, and which shall use every possible means of developing the fighting spirit and raising the social status of the fighting man. Hitherto the *literati*, and even the merchants, have stood in public estimation far above the officers of the army. This state of things must be reversed. The profession of arms must be raised in dignity; the soldier must be made to outrank the petty trader; and the army officer must be given a social position equal at least to that of the civil official and the scholar. Until China has an army that is powerful enough to defend her interests at home and inspire respect abroad, there is no possibility of her becoming a strong power.

4. Educational reorganization. China must have a national public school system, with adequate financial support and a definite course of modern instruction. She has abolished the teaching of the Confucian classics, and the system of official appointment and preferment based thereon; but, outside of a comparatively small number of cities, she has failed to furnish any substitute that is at all commensurate with the needs of the people and the State. Probably it will be impossible for her to furnish such a substitute until financial reorganization gives her more money to spend for educational purposes.

These four reforms must be the very foundation stones of a new national structure. What has China done thus far to bring any of them about? One is tempted to say, with Mr. Jameson, "Absolutely nothing that is practical and adequate." She has originated various schemes on paper, but outside of the educational field such schemes have had no practical results. The creation of the so-called "Senate" awakened an interest in national affairs and national problems, and helped to develop a feeling of national self-consciousness; but the body thus created had only deliberative and advisory powers and could initiate no reforms. It discussed the finances of the Empire, and attempted, with wholly inadequate means, to frame a budget; but, so far as I know, it did not outline or suggest any radical reform, even in the field of finance, while it had little or nothing to say about

the centralization of national power, the adoption of a uniform national system of taxation, the standardization of the coinage of the Empire, the substitution of fixed official salaries for unlimited official "squeezes," the framing of a constitution, or the fitting of the people by education for the responsibility of electing a parliament.

In view of all these considerations, it

does not seem to me probable that China will become a strong, independent Power at any time in the near future. People who expect in China the rapid national transformation that took place in Japan will certainly be disappointed. There is only a chance that it may come in time to save the Chinese from the domination of some stronger, better organized, or more efficient nation.

THE TRANSLATION

BY JOHN SMITH KENDALL

"GRETCHEN," said the angel, very gently, "it is time for us to go."

"Yes, sir," replied Gretchen, obediently.

She was always obedient. As far back as she could remember, she had always said "Yes, sir," and "Yes, ma'am." But it had not often been with the pleasant feeling of grateful anticipation with which she said it now.

Gretchen was a little scullery-maid, and worked in the kitchen of a great house, in the wealthiest part of the town, a house in which dwelt Herr Herrmann, the pickle-maker. It was a rich man's kitchen, but kitchens are all much alike, and Gretchen could not recall anything that made her duties lighter or happier just because it was Herr Herrmann for whom she worked. In fact, Herr Herrmann, if he knew of her existence at all, gave no sign thereof, but ate and drank and sent the soiled platters and the wine-stained goblets down to the dark corner where Gretchen was always on duty, in numbers which showed that, so far as he was concerned, it made no difference how long or how hard she toiled at her laborious and unattractive task.

But she never complained. In fact, she never thought how hard the work was. She had never known anything else, and to labor long and hard was her life, the essential of existence, which she never thought of changing. Sometimes she admired the lustrous ware that she cleaned, or the shine of the glass that

emerged, bright and dripping, from her pan; but these were things that pertained to Herr Herrmann's sphere, and could not, in the natural order of things, figure in hers, except to be lathered and rinsed and dried on towels and put away in tall presses, under the eye of the butler or the housekeeper, to whom she always said, as she now said to the angel, "Yes, sir," and "Yes, ma'am."

Now it was very strange, but at the very moment that the angel went into the scullery and took Gretchen by the hand and led her away, another angel walked up the big front stair and into Herr Herrmann's bedroom. He went in unannounced, and Herr Herrmann, looking up from his morning's newspaper, and seeing the visitor standing on the threshold, growled at him an inhospitable "Well, what do you want, hey?"

"You," answered the angel, curtly.

"Me?" exclaimed Herr Herrmann, scornfully. "You can't have me, and that's all about it. Now get out!"

But the angel advanced to Herr Herrmann's chair and put a cool, strong hand upon Herr Herrmann's arm. The rich man started, looked up with sudden, wide, comprehending eyes.

"Well," he said, irritably, "if we have to go, let us go at once!"

But Herr Herrmann left the house by the front door, and Gretchen went out by the area door, and consequently they did not meet—not till the journey was over. And then they met in a curious

place, and, as it seemed to them, a long time later, though, as a matter of fact, it was only an hour or two. It was in a sort of garden, or meadow, with trees and flowers, and a little river that flowed murmuringly between banks thick with velvety turf; with here and there a mossy marble bench in a shady corner, where one might sit and think; and the golden light of mid-afternoon slept like a benediction upon the whole tranquil landscape.

Gretchen and her angel were walking there beside the river.

"I must go back to Herr Herrmann's," said Gretchen presently. "It is past luncheon-time, and there will be the dishes to wash—oh, ever so many dishes! You know, Herr Herrmann always eats a great deal at luncheon."

The angel smiled. "I know," he answered. "But you need not hurry. Some one else will wash the dishes to-day."

"There is no one else," Gretchen hastened to assure him. "Indeed, there is not. You see, Hildebrand, the butler, will not touch them, and Frau Schmidt says that it is not fit work for a lady who wants to keep her knuckles soft and white; and so I must do it."

"Is that why your hands are so rough and red?" asked the angel.

Gretchen glanced down shamefacedly at those poor members of hers, awkwardly aware that years of soap and hot water had destroyed whatever beauty they must once have had. At the same time she wished that the angel had not seen them. Not that she felt it unkind of him to look or to comment; it wasn't in her gentle heart to think of that; but only that she wished that her hands had been white and plump, like Frau Schmidt's.

"Oh, oh!" she cried, in astonishment. "They aren't red any more! What has happened to them? These are not my hands at all!" For, strange as it may appear, all the marks of labor and ill-usage were gone, the cracked red skin was whole and white, and the ugly hands which Gretchen remembered were now beautiful indeed—yes, far more beautiful than Frau Schmidt's were, or ever could be.

"Everything is different here," said the angel, kindly. "It is not what one does, but what one is, that makes one either beautiful or ugly. And because

you have been meek and humble of spirit, and good and gentle of heart, you are—but look! You shall see for yourself."

He led her to the side of the little river and bade her look down into its crystal depths, where her entire form was repeated as in a superb mirror. Gretchen gazed, transfixed with surprise and delight; for she saw therein a tall and stateiv maiden, with sweet, warm, red lips and golden hair, and eyes which shone like the evening stars with tender light.

"Am I like that—now?" she asked at length. The words were whispered under her breath, as much a question addressed to herself as to the angel.

"It is indeed you," he answered. "You will always be like that, only lovelier as the years go by, growing more and more lovely throughout eternity."

"Then," said Gretchen, naïvely, "this must be heaven."

"It is, indeed," smiled the angel. "And, little maid, it is because in the darkness and toil of Herr Herrmann's scullery you kept yourself good and loving that now, in this place, where only the good and the loving can be happy, you have become what you are."

They walked on across the smooth lawns and beside the sweet-smelling flower-beds, Gretchen full of wonder at the transformation that had been wrought in her, and the angel looking at her from time to time with grave, wise, smiling eyes. Once he caught her glancing surreptitiously at her rejuvenated hands—they were so white and fine that she could not resist doing so; whereat poor Gretchen blushed furiously and hid her arms up to the elbow in the robe she wore—a robe which, she noted with amazement, was softer and richer and more lustrous than any garment she had ever seen before, such a dress as Frau Schmidt had never owned, no, nor the wife of Herr Herrmann either, for that matter.

Filled with new ideas, Gretchen walked onward, hardly seeing where she went, until suddenly she was roused to a realization of her surroundings by a tiny but querulous voice from the grass almost beneath her feet. "Here, girl," it said imperiously, in spite of its minute volume, "can't you look where you are going? A little more and you would have walked

on me! The impertinence of some people! Absolutely insufferable!"

"Oh, I beg your pardon," cried Gretchen, penitently.

Looking more intently, she saw that the voice proceeded from a minute figure of a man, portly, bald-headed, with a red nose and hard eyes—a man who, she thought with a smile, looked amazingly like Herr Herrmann. It was an absurd fancy, she told herself, for Herr Herrmann, as she well knew, was a big, burly individual, quite overshadowing her small self, as she remembered him; and, moreover, hadn't he a gorgeous mansion, and endless riches, and all manner of delightful things? Why should he leave them to come to this place, which the angel called heaven?

"But, you know, my child," said the angel, answering her unspoken thought, "it really is Herr Herrmann."

Gretchen laughed. "Is that you, Herr Herrmann?" she asked, addressing the manikin at her feet.

"Certainly it is," the answer floated up to her. "And who are you, reckless woman that you are?"

"Why, I'm Gretchen—Gretchen, the scullery-maid. I work in your kitchen, Herr Herrmann, you know."

"I don't know," and the tones were still more irritated. "And if you do, you lazy baggage, it's time you were back there. I warrant the dishes are all unwashed!"

"But, Herr Herrmann," expostulated Gretchen, "this gentleman"—she indicated the angel—"says I am not to wash any more dishes."

The little man reflected a moment. Evidently there was something in the angel's port which daunted him. "Ah, well," he said finally, "I suppose so. If he says so—yes, I presume—that's all right."

Gretchen sank down upon one of the marble benches, and thus brought herself nearer the level of the diminutive speaker. She saw him quite clearly now. It was indeed Herr Herrmann, but how small—how ridiculously small! She laughed a little to herself, and then, turning to the angel, asked, "But why isn't he large and strong and red, just as he used to be?"

"That's what I want to know," interposed the manikin, perching himself upon the root of a tree which grew beside the

bench and spread its grateful shade over the cool grass and even down to the gliding river. "Yes, that's what I want to know! Incredible! I, Herr Herrmann, the richest man in Dordrecht, to be reduced to this foolish size; whereas Gretchen, my little scullion, who never could have been much to look at, anyway, here she is, fifty times my stature and radiant as the sunshine itself! What is the world coming to when poor folk behave like that? That's what I want to know!"

"It is a very simple matter," replied the angel, gravely. "Both of you people are dead."

Herr Herrmann jumped up indignantly. "Dead! Do you call this dead?" he shouted in his tiny voice. "I'm not a bit dead. I'm just as alive as I ever was!"

"Quite true," answered the angel. "I mean you are dead in the way that people on earth use the word. Really, it doesn't make a particle of difference."

"But," asked Gretchen, mystified, "why does that make Herr Herrmann so tiny and me so tall?"

"This place in which we three are now is called heaven. Some people are better fitted to thrive here than others. Those who have so lived on earth that they find themselves quite at home, as it were, when they come here, are permitted to retain their normal stature; and if they have trained their minds and hearts in thoughts of beauty and holiness, why, they acquire an outward seeming that conforms to their inward spiritual condition. That is why Gretchen has become what she is now, for, though she was only a drudge in your kitchen, Herr Herrmann, she was always a sweet, obedient, gentle little girl whose spirit dwelt near to the Great Spirit; and that is why you have become what you are, because you do not fit very well into heaven."

"This isn't heaven," ejaculated Herr Herrmann, angrily. "If it is, I do not think much of the place."

"Well," returned the angel, mildly, "perhaps you are right. It is heaven for those who know it to be such, and it is—well, you have your own word for it, Herr Herrmann, haven't you?—for those who do not find it, shall we say, congenial? You see, Herr Herrmann, all you did while you were on earth was to make and save

money; and you had much of it; but the soul of you, the essential You, never had any opportunity to grow. When you died, all at once the money passed out of your possession, and the only thing which you knew how to do well, which was to make money, became a quite useless accomplishment. What remained came up to heaven. It was very little that remained, Herr Herrmann. That is why you are now so insignificant a person."

Herr Herrmann sat silent a few moments on the tree-root. Then he said in a low tone, "And will I always be thus?"

"Ah," replied the angel, "that is for you

to say. If you know how to grow, you will grow. But that is something which you will have to find out for yourself."

Gretchen's eyes filled with tears. "Poor Herr Herrmann!" she said, sympathetically. "Isn't there something I can do for you?"

As she spoke a new brightness sparkled in her eyes, a fresher beauty flushed her soft round cheek, a clearer gold seemed to glitter in her shining hair. Herr Herrmann looked at her with sudden understanding.

"You have done it, Gretchen," he cried, eagerly. "I think I begin to see the way."

THE MASTER BUILDER

"As he is, so are we in this world"

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

FOURTH ARTICLE

THE FIRST BATTLE

JESUS was now thirty years of age. He had given himself by public dedication to a work of spiritual ministry. He had pondered his mission, determined its character, and resolved upon his methods. He went up the long ascent which led from the Valley of the Jordan to Jerusalem. It was eighteen years since he had visited this ecclesiastical capital. One cannot but wonder whether he went, as Luther had gone to Rome, hoping to find in the Holy City some inspiration to aid him in his sacred task. If so, he met with a shock to his hopes, and began his ministry by a challenge to the self-constituted leaders of Israel who should have been his allies.

The Temple of Jerusalem was one of the architectural splendors of the world. It had been rebuilt by Herod, the last king of the decaying kingdom of the Jews, who was fond of architectural display, ambitious to found a dynasty which should accord in splendor with that of Solomon's, and desirous to ingratiate himself with the Jewish people by ministering to their ecclesiastical pride. He therefore initiated his reign by measures for the

rebuilding of the ruined temple. Skilled workmen were gathered from various parts of Palestine; a thousand priests were especially instructed in the arts of the stone-cutter and the carpenter. It was forty-six years before the last workmen finally left the sacred edifice. The result was a temple whose architectural magnificence has perhaps never been surpassed in either ancient or modern times. It covered an area of over nineteen acres, a little larger than the combined area of St. Peter's at Rome and St. Paul's at London. The material was white marble, the roof cedar, the architecture probably an admixture of the Greek and the Roman. Magnificently ornamented gates admitted the worshiper to its outer court, which completely encircled the temple proper within. This, the largest of the courts, the Stoa Basilica, alone comprised an area larger than the largest English cathedral. Four rows of marble pillars supported a roof of cedar elaborately carved, and divided the court into three aisles like those of a Gothic cathedral. The floor was a mosaic of many-colored stones; a carved balustrade of marble

surrounded the temple proper, which was built within this court and was raised a few steps above it. Inscriptions in Greek and Latin forbade the heathen from advancing further under pain of death, but the privileged Jew, ascending a flight of steps, and passing through one of the richly ornamented doors which admitted to the sacred inclosure, found himself in the true temple, with its terraced courts for the women, for the men, and for the priests, rising one above the other, with an innermost temple, itself the size of an ordinary modern church, within which was the Holy of Holies, veiled even from priestly gaze by the impenetrable curtain.

But the sight which met the eyes of Jesus as he ascended to this sacred temple, which he had not seen since his boyhood, aroused not his admiring gaze but his fiery indignation. The magnificent Stoa Basilica had been converted into a market-place. The temple, from being the center of Jewish worship, had become the center of Jewish trade. Pilgrims coming to Jerusalem from afar could not bring with them their sacrifices for the altar; they had to purchase them in Jerusalem. The corrupt priesthood had combined with the marketmen and money-changers to compel the worshipers to exchange their money with and buy their sacrifices of appointed marketmen at such prices as they chose to charge. For greater facility in the transactions of the market, and for the better securing of the marketmen's monopoly, the market had been transferred to this outer court of the temple. The aisles were filled with the booths of the traders; the tessellated pavement was covered with the straw and filth of the stable; the magnificent marble pillars were made to serve as hitching-posts for the sheep and the cattle; the gateways were obstructed with the tables of the brokers; the unseemly smell of the market mingled with the fragrance of the incense before the altar; and the bleating of sheep, the cooing of doves, the lowing of the cattle, the chink of money, and the loud altercation of the traders mingled with the music of the sacred service.

Jesus acted on the impulse of the moment with a zeal which, to his disciples, seemed untempered with discretion. It was a case where burning vehemence alone

could win the victory which would have been denied to prudence and calculation. He stooped and gathered from the floor some of the rushes strewn there for the beds of the cattle, and wove with them a little whip. With a countenance terrible in the majesty of a justifiable and unrestrainable indignation, he advanced on these usurpers of the sacred courts, demanded the meaning of their sacrilege, overturned the tables of the money-changers, drove the cattle from their stalls. There was something in his mien that forbade resistance. The owners followed their fleeing cattle; the brokers did not even stop to gather up their scattered money; the whole crowd of traffickers fled before this single Galilean. But his act was popular. It was a protest against the traffic usurpations of the few in favor of the sacred rights of the many. The common people welcomed the restoration of their temple courts; even the poorer portion of the Pharisaical party rejoiced to see removed the profanation they abhorred but dared not interfere with. Nor was it until the scene was over and the courts were cleared that the astonished traders, or their allies the priests, regained sufficient courage to demand of Jesus some evidence of his authority.

Years after, John, who had already met Jesus at the time of the baptism, and who may well have followed him up to Jerusalem, saw in a vision a figure which recalled unto him the Son of man. "His eyes were as a flame of fire; and his feet like unto burnished brass, as if it had been refined in a furnace; and his voice as the voice of many waters; . . . and out of his mouth proceeded a sharp two-edged sword: and his countenance was as the sun shineth in his strength." I am inclined to believe that when he saw that figure in the vision he recalled the hour when Jesus, with eyes flaming with wrath, with the tread of a soldier, with a voice thundering with indignation, with words that pierced like a rapier, and with a countenance radiant with a fiery righteousness, drove from the temple the men who were robbing the worshipers of their substance and the house of God of its purity and its glory.

The Master was a good fighter. Wrongs inflicted upon himself he did not resist. Insults he bore not merely with patience

but with equanimity; they did not disturb him. Malice forged and set in circulation innumerable false accusations against him; he did not defend himself against them. He treated his accusers with the silent disregard with which the strong man treats the yelping of a pack of curs or the hissing of a flock of geese. But wrongs to others filled him with such an indignation that before him the oppressors of the people were cowed and fled in terror.

Three years later he came to Jerusalem again. The enemies of the people, divided into three hostile factions, made common cause against him—the corrupt politicians of that time who, remaining nominally Jews, curried favor with the Roman oppressors of the Jews; their cynical allies, who in the priesthood performed the ritual of the Temple while denying the fundamental faith of Israel; and the pretentious reformers of that age, immoral religionists, who were scrupulous about ritual and indifferent about practical righteousness. These all surrounded him in angry groups and plied him with casuistical questioning. He replied to them with a calmness which irritated them the more, and then launched at them an invective which for vigor and vehemence is without a parallel in either ancient or modern literature. The people recognized their friend, and both admired and loved him. Their enemies and his dared not proceed against him openly. They bribed one of his followers; tracked him to his retreat; surprised his sleeping followers, whom he had set to watch

against such surprise; convened a night court in haste; and had him convicted, sentenced, and on his way to execution before Jerusalem was fairly awake. Humanly speaking, he died for his defense of the common people against their betrayers and oppressors.

A cowardly Christian is a contradiction in terms. We forget that Jesus was the Lion of the tribe of Judah as well as the Lamb slain. We forget that it was because he was a Lion fighting for the helpless that he was slain. The successors of his foes are all here in America—here the corrupt politicians, here their cynical allies, though now more to be found in the press than in the priesthood—here the pretentious religionists who devour widows' houses and for a pretense make long prayers. To follow the Master is to fight these enemies of popular rights and popular welfare. It is to make war against vested wrongs that call themselves vested rights, and buy sanction from lawyers and acquiescence from churches. Savonarola was a follower of the Master as truly as Thomas à Kempis; William of Orange as truly as John Wyclif; Oliver Cromwell as truly as John Wesley.

So are they his followers, to-day, by whatever name they may be called, who dare to challenge the men who are attempting to convert into a den of thieves this land dedicated to liberty and equal rights. This is what the Master meant when he said, I came not to send peace, but a sword.

THE BOYS' CLUB IN OUR TOWN

BY MARY W. PORTER

FOR many years Our Town has been of no importance. Two years ago Uncle Sam wiped us off the face of the map by taking away our post-office and putting us on a rural route from a neighboring Larger Village. Politically we count but little. Our voters are so few that we are allowed a representative in the State Legislature but once in three years. The social life has been practically nothing. The school, taking the children

through the eighth grade, has represented the only intellectual effort of the town.

The key in one church has scarcely been turned in years. The other church, by the help of the State Convention, has managed to procure the services of a minister from the Larger Village for an afternoon service on Sundays. Frequently scarcely a baker's dozen of people have been in the church. The organ was bad. The singing, with no one to lead,

was worse. It was a penance for any one with a sensitive musical ear to go to church, anyway. A rural problem, sure enough!

But few realized that there was any problem, and scarcely any one cared whether the problem should ever be solved.

But the Minister who came to this church was a scholar, a man too advanced in years for an "institutional church," a man who had spent his whole life in the successful teaching of young men.

Now it chanced that a man came from the city and settled on a farm about half-way between Our Town and the Larger Village. Naturally he went to the Larger Village for church. This man from the city was an idealist, an enthusiast, and an organizer. He had had much experience with boys.

The Minister had watched those boys of Our Town; he had caught glimpses of the dreams they were beginning to dream; he was seeing the visions of what they might become. So he said to the Idealist: "Don't come to this Larger Village; go over into Our Town and help those boys."

These boys of Our Town were farm boys. Farmers' boys, from the necessities of the case, learn early in life to perform faithfully certain duties that belong to home-making and home-keeping. This early meeting of personal obligations in the family life is the best possible training for the responsibilities of the larger life out in the world. Just here, doubtless, is one reason why the larger percentage of the men of affairs have been farm-trained boys.

The next Sunday the Idealist came to Our Town for church, as the Minister had asked him to do. He brought together the few boys who were there. He said: "Now, boys, get your friends together. The evenings are getting long now. Bring them all to the Parish House, and we'll see if we can't have a club."

Friday night the boys were there. They decided to have a three-sided Club—for the training of the body, the mind, and the soul. They would have all kinds of athletics: Indian clubs, jumping, dumb-bells, scientific wrestling, organized baseball—a training they had never

dared hope to have in a place so small as Our Town.

Then they would have a constitution, and a regular, properly conducted business meeting each Club night. Now and then they would have entertainments. There should be a literary programme, a current events report, and some music each night. Sunday they would have systematic Bible study.

The Idealist inspired the boys with his enthusiasm. They took hold of the organization and of the work with a right good will. They took turns supplying the wood for heating the Parish House, cutting it themselves when necessary. Wild horses could not keep them away from the Parish House on Friday nights or from church and Sunday-school on Sundays. The families of two of the boys moved to neighboring towns, and one of the boys walked four and the other six miles each way to be present at the Club and Sunday-school each week.

Two or three pews full of eager boy faces welcomed the Minister each Sunday. With their falsetto voices they helped as best they could in the singing. The Club inspired the Minister's texts. The boys came for a message, and they were never disappointed.

At the Bible school after church the Idealist planned their work. They learned what the Bible was for—they learned how to use it—they learned that it was for the daily guidance of their lives.

When it came to be midwinter, there was to be a convention of Young Men's Christian Association Boys' Clubs in one of the cities of the State. The Idealist said, "I'm going to the Convention, and perhaps you'd better send some delegates." That they were of importance enough to send representatives was a new thought. The delegates and their leader went. Right away the county secretary and the State secretary said: "You are the boys we want; you are a little Young Men's Christian Association, and you didn't know it! We'll come over and see you soon, and perhaps you'll all decide to join the county organization."

The trip did what the Idealist had planned for it. The boys came back anxious to do their work in home and church and town.

One hot spring day a threatening fire broke out in a wood lot of Our Town. Four of the boys, who happened to be within telephone reach, responded to the call and helped the men to fight the fire. The fire was controlled and supposed to be subdued. So faithful had been the service of the boys through the afternoon that the fire warden asked them to go home for supper and come back to patrol the burned forty acres through the night. Three of the boys were under sixteen. On the first patrol they found the fire again broken out and rapidly spreading. They sent the youngest, a lad of thirteen, for help, working themselves to the limit of their strength. Four men came, and the fire was conquered. A fifteen-minute delay would have meant the destruction of many thousands of dollars' worth of dry stacked lumber. A playing at Boy Scout work in real earnest! The regular State pay for their fire-fighting will buy their new baseball suits.

The Club became a branch of the Young Men's Christian Association. They started a Sunday evening prayer-meeting. Four of the boys joined the church. The prayer-meetings are growing in size and in interest. The congregations of the church are much larger; there is now life in the service. To improve the singing the Idealist organized a neighborhood singing-class for Saturday evenings. The boys' voices are finding out where they belong. The Sunday singing is now a pleasure to every one. "The Boys' Club," the Minister said, "may be a bugle call to this church."

Their finances they have managed themselves by dues of ten cents a month. They have earned \$2.42 from an entertainment; \$8 has been given to them by interested friends. They paid personally for their own Indian clubs. From the treasury they have paid the running expenses, one-quarter of the expenses of four delegates to two conventions, and for their dumb-bells.

They had one discouragement. The Ladies' Aid Society of the church had the interior of the Parish House painted. After that the boys, they said, must find a new meeting-place lest they scratch the immaculate floors. Emerson might still find here in New England things in the

saddle, riding mankind. It was a good many years ago that a Greek philosopher protested against taking more thought for the care of our cattle and other possessions than for the rearing of our sons.

But the first selectman said: "Never mind; take the Town Hall; there's no paint to hurt, and you'll have more room." So the silver lining to that cloud dispelled the cloud altogether.

"The Boy Problem is as high as heaven, as deep as hell, and as broad as the world!" With this thought as his banner, the Idealist led the boys through that winter. They have accomplished practically what they planned in the beginning, and a good bit besides. They know how to "resuscitate the drowning man;" they are to have a track team; they are considering entering the corn contest; they have helped in some practical charity; they are gathering together the smaller boys for a Club and Sunday-school class, which they shall themselves take turns in leading and teaching; they have assisted the boys of the Larger Village to form a Young Men's Christian Association group; they are planning to try to organize one in another near-by town; the boys of the Larger Village are coming to Our Town for the Sunday afternoon and evening services.

Perhaps the most important influence for the boys has been the close personal association with a man of culture, a man of strong character, a man guided by unselfish purposes and high ideals.

Just why the Minister came to these parishes, just why the Idealist came to be a farmer in Our Town, are questions that do not concern us here. As one of the boys said of the Idealist, "Anyway, he came just in time to save us boys." One thing seems plain. These two men are certainly parts of the wheel with which the Potter is shaping the lives of these boys.

The end is not yet—indeed, it is just the beginning; but it is possible to judge something of the harvest even during the cultivation period.

A better poise, a more erect figure, a manner more at ease, a mind better trained, a new purpose in life, a new meaning to life itself—all this the Minister and the Idealist have brought to the boys of Our Town.

EXPERIENCES OF A DRY TOWN

BY W. D. HULBERT

THE cities of the Pacific Coast continue to furnish picturesque incidents in municipal history. Everett, Washington, a town of twenty-five thousand people, voted itself dry at the November elections, after an unusually hard-fought campaign. Everett is said to be the largest city west of Lincoln, Nebraska, to take such action, and, as it is a seaport and a manufacturing point, there was a strong element which desired to retain the saloons. It was freely predicted that business would suffer and that bank deposits would show a decrease, especially as a large number of saloon-keepers left town and took their money with them. But, instead, the deposits showed a decided increase in the first two months after the saloons closed, and a much larger increase a little later. The records of the Police Department for the same period are very interesting. In December, 1910, the last month under license, the number of arrests for drunkenness was eighty-five. In January it was exactly the same, which has been accounted for by the fact that the saloons had sold off their stocks at very low prices and their patrons had laid in supplies for several weeks. In February the arrests for drunkenness were only nineteen, and since then Everett has been so orderly and the jail so nearly empty that it has been found practicable to reduce the police force by more than one-third. The city treasury, however, was even emptier than the jail. The net income for 1910 from saloon licenses, after deducting a certain percentage which went to the State, had been about \$38,000. This was entirely cut off for 1911, and the city was also obliged to refund to the saloon-keepers about \$13,000 on unexpired licenses in force when the prohibition law took effect.

Everett therefore found herself face to face with a loss for the present year of a little over two dollars for every man, woman, and child in town, and the worst of it was that she was already pressed for money. Being a young city, she had been obliged to spend large sums on her streets

and other necessary improvements, and in consequence her property tax was up to the eight-mill limit imposed by the city charter, while her indebtedness was larger than the law permitted. On the other hand, it had been thought that the worst of her troubles were over, for her debts were being slowly diminished, while her assessed valuation was rising rapidly. If the immediate emergency could be met, the future was not discouraging. The City Council thereupon decided that rigid economy must be the order of the day, and also of the night, and, much to the edification of rival towns, it ordered the street lights extinguished and the street-cleaning stopped. The press took up the tale, and horrible stories of Everett's darkness and dirtiness spread from Puget Sound to Massachusetts Bay and the Gulf of Mexico. As a matter of fact, the lights were not put out at all, for the lighting company believed that some way out of the dilemma would be found, and it took a chance on being able to collect its bills. The street-cleaning was stopped for a time, but only temporarily, and the consequences were not as serious as they would have been in a larger town.

Following this spasm of thrift it was proposed to raise the necessary funds by a so-called "occupation tax"—a measure which was not prohibited by the charter or the laws, as any further increase in the property tax would have been. All wage-earners were to be assessed one day's pay: owners of bootblack stands, painters, and paperhangers were to give \$10 each; ministers of the Gospel, \$20; doctors, lawyers, and architects, \$50; plumbers, \$100 (!); merchants of the first class, \$350; banks of the first class, \$500; gas companies, water companies, electric light companies, and railways, \$1,000; and others similar amounts. The plan met with strenuous opposition, partly because of the universal antipathy to fresh taxes, and partly because it was feared that it might frighten away new industries. Nevertheless, it would almost certainly have been adopted, with some amendments, if Everett had

not suddenly determined on a popular subscription. The Business Men's Association took up the matter, and in three days over forty thousand dollars was raised, all necessity of a special tax was averted, and, better still, the movement was accompanied by such an outburst of public spirit and civic enthusiasm as is seldom experienced by any city. The individual subscriptions numbered about three thousand, and were in sums ranging from twenty-five cents to three thousand dollars. It is planned to use the money in such a way that it will bring the city's indebtedness within the legal limit, when it will be possible to refund the entire remaining debt at a very much lower rate of interest than is now being paid. The result will be a saving of

twenty thousand dollars per annum in interest charges alone, and with the reduction in the expenses of the Police Department, together with other reasonable economies, and the natural increase in valuations, the prospects are that Everett will soon find herself better off financially as well as morally through the abolition of the saloons.

Best of all, perhaps, is the fact that the authorities appear to be enforcing the law vigorously and impartially. There may be an honest difference of opinion as to the wisdom of prohibiting saloons in cities where a very considerable part of the population desires to retain them, but there can be no question that such a law, if once placed on the statute-book, should be enforced.

WORK FOR THE WORLD

BY ARTHUR JUDSON BROWN

THE noble traditions of Auckland Castle, England, and the bountiful hospitality of the Bishop of Durham were an appropriate setting for the recent meeting (May 16-20) of the Continuation Committee appointed by the World Missionary Conference at Edinburgh about a year ago. The stone towers of the venerable building, seen through the oaks and beeches of the spacious park and surrounded by such lawns and flower gardens as only England knows, made a picture never to be forgotten. For nearly eight hundred years the Bishops of Durham have occupied that palace. Their portraits hang upon the walls of the state drawing-room, and the immortal Butler, Lightfoot, and Westcott sleep under the floor of the Chapel, which was built by Bishop Pudsey in 1185, as part of the palace. For centuries the Bishops of Durham were Princes Palatine, great feudal lords with civil as well as ecclesiastical power. Their civil functions were transferred to the Crown early in the last century, but the religious influence of the "Lord Bishop" is greater than ever. The present Bishop, Dr.

Moule, is one of the spiritual forces of the Church universal. Mrs. Moule added a gracious influence at the table in the great dining-hall of the palace and at the afternoon teas, and helped to create an atmosphere which drew all hearts together. The Bishop said that no historic event in connection with the Castle was more important than this meeting of the Continuation Committee. For that Committee represents interests which have never before been united and which never could have been united until now. Its thirty-five members come from seventeen different countries—England, Scotland, France, Germany, Holland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Switzerland, Canada, the United States, Australasia, Africa, China, India, and Japan—and from a still larger number of communions, including the Anglicans and several types of Nonconformists of England, the Established and Free Churches of Scotland, the State and Independent Churches of the Continent, and various denominations in North America.

The Committee is rightly named the Continuation Committee, for it was con-

stituted to continue the work of the World Missionary Conference at Edinburgh. Unlike other conferences, the recognition of its importance grows as the date recedes. All others derived their membership from comparatively small areas, like the Councils of the early Church, or from a single communion, like the Pan-Anglican and Pan-Presbyterian Councils. But the World Missionary Conference at Edinburgh drew its membership from widely separated parts of the world, and from every Christian communion except the Roman and Greek Churches. It has been well said that the first assemblage of Christian leaders in Jerusalem consisted of a handful of Jews who considered whether the Gospel should be given to the Gentiles; while the last, at Edinburgh, consisted of two thousand Gentiles who considered how the Gospel might be more effectively given to the whole non-Christian world, of which the Jews form but a very small part. "Since the Gospel has been preached in every land," runs the quaint message of a meeting of Chinese Christians at Yun-cheng, Shansi, "conferences are, of course, ordinary occurrences in the Church; but this gathering in Scotland is such that it cannot but be thought of with longing. Alas that we are born and bred in China and have never seen such an extraordinary sight!"

The Edinburgh Conference was unique in another important particular. Other conferences end with their adjournment, but the Edinburgh Conference goes on through its Continuation Committee. It is this fact which gives such significance to that Committee. The Conference set in motion powerful forces and accelerated others which were already in operation. It felt that it should not dissolve without creating some body which could deal more deliberately and systematically with those forces. There were fears that the diverse elements at Edinburgh could not unite for this purpose, but no one who was present can ever forget the solemn enthusiasm of the session in which the Conference unanimously appointed the Continuation Committee.

The entire European and North American delegation of thirty members was present at this meeting at Auckland Castle, except two of the British members,

who were ill. The Committee sat for four full days, meeting morning, afternoon, and evening. In addition to a half-hour's intercession at midday, each day began and ended with prayers in the Chapel, conducted by the Bishop of Durham. The reverent devotion of the leader, "the dim religious light" of the historic edifice, and the thought of the great company of invisible witnesses who had worshiped within those hallowed walls made the experience a memorable one.

The limits within which I am confined in *The Outlook* make it impossible for me to describe in detail the work of this Committee. I can only say that chief among many subjects which have a bearing on missions are the following:

The most effective distribution of missionary forces in the field so as to prevent overlapping and interference, both at home and abroad.

The development of modern systems of education, especially in Asia. Asia is dissatisfied with its old system of education, and wants Western learning.

Providing, through the Christian colleges in China, men competent to act as capable leaders in the political and social reform which the Chinese Government desires to carry out, but cannot for lack of trained leaders.

The scientific study of missionary methods and policies, which require variety and flexibility to adapt them to different countries.

The effective organization and administration of Christian churches indigenous to the soil, and made self-governing and self-propagating.

The preparation of a more suitable and adequate literature; more effective training of candidates for missionary appointment; better equipment for meeting special problems; education, medical and otherwise.

The study of methods to secure co-operation and the promotion of unity in missionary work.

The publication of a new missionary quarterly, the "International Review of Missions," which is to be published in Edinburgh under the editorship of the secretary of the Committee, the first number to be issued next January. The Secretary of the Committee, Mr. J. H. Oldham, will be the editor.

The Committee asked its chairman, Dr. John R. Mott, to devote a considerable portion of his time to the work of the Committee. I venture to bespeak for him and for the great Committee which he represents the co-operation and the prayers of the whole Church. The second decade of the twentieth century is pre-eminently a time for clearness of vision, for breadth of sympathy, and for statesmanship of planning. It is a time to remedy defects and to learn from past failures as well as successes. It is, above all, a time for the

splendor of a mighty faith, for a more assured conviction that the Gospel of Christ is adequate to the problems of men of the world in all ages and in all countries, and that—

“There shall come from out this noise of strife and groaning
A broader and a juster brotherhood;
A deep equality of aim postponing
All selfish seeking to the general good.
Then shall come a time when each shall to another
Be, as Christ would have him—brother
unto brother.”

THE NEW ATHLETICS

BY LUTHER HALSEY GULICK

IT is no wonder that college athletics have run wild. The tremendous enthusiasm in the life of young men has suddenly been given a new outlet—not that athletics are new, but intercollegiate athletics are relatively new. Young men untrained in matters of finance are given control of many thousands of dollars without adequate accountability. They are made to feel, by the space devoted to them in the newspapers, that they as individuals are enormously important. College authorities in the early development of intercollegiate athletics here in America gave little if any attention to these athletics and to their control. This great new social agency, this development of one of the most fundamental needs of our times, in conjunction with great public education, has run away with the sober sense of most of us. It needs what it is now getting—a careful valuation and a critical discussion of the modes by which the social values may be retained and may be made again available to the average individual, and yet at the same time avoid the evils which have been so vigorously called to our attention during the past few years.

The development of intercollegiate athletics, and of inter-institutional athletics in general, during the past years has been

correctly characterized as mushroom-like. But to produce a growth of this character there must be real causes; imaginary causes cannot create a situation such as we now have with reference to the interest of the public, as well as the student body, in inter-institutional and international sports.

Inter-institutional athletics do not exist for the benefit of the competitors. In this respect they differ radically from the sports that are carried on within the college itself. When a single institution spends in one year a thousand dollars on each of one hundred men who shall carry the reputation, the glory, of the institution hopefully toward victory, and the one hundred men who are selected for this supposedly “physical training” are those who by heredity and environment are least in need of such intensive application, it becomes perfectly clear that the direct object is not the physical betterment of these inter-institutional athletes. When we examine these men who are competing for their institutions from the standpoint of the physician, we find ourselves divided as to whether the sum total on the physiological side has been beneficial or not beneficial.

When forty thousand persons come together to watch twenty-two men, plus

a certain number of substitutes, play football; when there exists an intense spirit of partisanship, often associated with the transfer of large sums of money; when the character of the play tolerated by the public opinion of the spectators is a dominant factor in the minds of the spectators as to what is ethically right and what is ethically wrong, then those twenty-two persons are creating and expressing ideals with reference to those things that are highest in life—ethical conduct and social relations. This game of football in particular, and intercollegiate sports in general, cannot stand or fall because of the number of knees sprained or the number of hearts dilated, or even the number of lives lost; because lives are lost in a far larger way and with far more direful results through social and moral demoralization than through the physical injury of a comparatively few men. The question must turn upon the effects of this playing upon the moral character of the general student body and the spectators. Every player on the field may come off unscathed physically, yet the game may have been a catastrophe of the most serious proportions—if it has set up dishonor for approbation.

Athletics represent the chief interest and form the ethical and social relations of the men who in their future lives are going to dominate this country. Granted that approximately two per cent of the young men of America go through college (I believe there are slightly more than this), and that these two per cent will secure fifty per cent of the positions involving the greatest leadership in the public opinion of America—then this athletic problem becomes most significant.

The case of intercollegiate athletics has thus far been discussed, not because the principles underlying their government differ in any material respect from those of other forms of athletic activity, but because just at present intercollegiate athletics occupy the public eye to a larger extent than do other athletics. The arguments that appear to be valid as indicating that such athletics are not justifiable on the basis of any possible benefits to be derived therefrom by the individual engaged in the competition are:

The limited number of competitors that

can enter into such athletics. The intercollegiate squad at Harvard consists of about one hundred men who have been chosen out of the whole number of four thousand students. Even granting that two or three times this number, say two hundred or three hundred men, enter into some of the preliminary training in the hope of being on the intercollegiate squad, we still have, at the very best, not over ten per cent of the students engaged in these athletics. Conditions at Harvard are not materially different from those that obtain in other institutions, large or small. In the larger secondary schools conditions are identical; in the smaller schools they are similar; those boys who excel in athletics are rarely limited in their activities to a single sport. Thus it often happens that a boy will play on the football team in the fall, on the basket-ball team in the winter, and he will be on both the baseball and track teams in the spring. Any proposition in the secondary schools to limit a boy to a single inter-institutional sport is met by the united opposition of nearly the whole student body, as well as the faculty, because it is claimed that there are so few boys who excel in athletics that to limit each boy to one form of athletic activity would mean practically the abolishing of some of the most cherished sports. There can be, then, no claim that in such cases the individual boy needs such a large amount of exercise.

The exclusion of all but those who are already proficient in athletics. Granted that ten per cent of the students of an institution who enter into athletics are directly affected by inter-institutional athletics, it is important to note that these ten per cent are those who are least in need of such training. They are those who have been most favored by heredity, by favorable environment, and by education, which qualifications enable them to excel in strength or speed or skill; or there is some combination of these qualities. If there are any students in the institution who do not need the intensive training that is given to the intercollegiate squad, it is these students who are already the best trained and who have had the greatest athletic experience.

Success in these athletics must often be at the expense of scholarship. The time and

effort given by the students in our large institutions to training for and competing in these outside games is altogether greater than is beneficial to their scholastic interests. Scholarship (and this is particularly true of the football squad) can be kept up only with some considerable degree of difficulty. The major interest centers about athletics, and it becomes an interest that has often been called "fictitious."

To summarize: It is, then, fallacious to attempt to advocate intercollegiate athletics on the basis of benefit to the individual, because less than ten per cent of the students are directly affected; these ten per cent are the ones who least need this activity; the amount of time and effort demanded for these sports is in excess of what the individual should give; as well as because no evidence has as yet been presented which shows that these particular men have been benefited in health, strength, and vitality because of having taken part in these athletic sports.

These objections and difficulties that have been presented are genuine and real. They are being recognized by many of our most thoughtful and able observers in America, men who are intimately connected with our large institutions of learning, and who are in a position to see the effects upon the individual athletes. On the ground of benefit to the individual, there can be no defense of these athletics. The "new athletics," or the new interpretation of the old athletics, lies in viewing them as social and moral agencies, as means for the creation of corporate sensitiveness and genuine institutional honor.

Although it is not necessary, perhaps, to have as much of such activity as is sometimes the case, from this larger standpoint, it is worth while for the institution to have these intercollegiate athletics. But the question of amount is merely a matter of detail and adjustment. Intercollegiate athletics exist for the institution—not that their value lies in attracting students; they stand for the social and moral ideals of that institution. There are few forces that can act more potently toward the making of moral fiber than can athletics. They form a tremendous power for moral life. It may be a clean, strong moral life

(carrying the high ideals of the social conscience) or the reverse—all depending upon the conduct of these athletics.

A new conscience is developing in the civilized world. The first time this seemed obvious was in connection with the Dreyfus trial. That was one of the first cases of injustice to an individual where the whole civilized world responded. History is full of greater or equal cases of injustice, but history is not full of cases where interest was taken by the world in the fate of such a man. A new era in honesty is dawning, and loyalty is being extended in a new way. This is exemplified by such things as the recent great reconstruction of public opinion with reference to the operation of trusts, due to the undoubted dishonesty of some of them, and the complete disapprobation that has been thrown upon certain men who represented these trusts, men who in their private lives were absolutely impeccable. These men had no corporate conscience. By the old standards they were good men; by the new standards they were criminals. Twenty years ago the public would not have condemned them, and some of them are the most surprised men to be so condemned. The recent discoveries in connection with our banks, and particularly the reaction of public opinion to them, indicate this new feeling of corporate honesty, as distinguished from individual honesty.

Unprecedented power for working good and evil to our fellows has been put into our hands suddenly—in the space of a couple of generations. Here is a vast, new extension of the field of moral accountability. Our conscience has not yet taken the measure of it; it has not yet fully realized the new burdens. The leading of a personally blameless life, in the old sense, is no longer any criterion of a man's moral stature.

This awakening of the corporate conscience is one of the chief characteristics of the century on which we have started. This is predominantly a social century. The present difficulties are not difficulties to be solved by physical science; they are primarily difficulties with regard to human relations. Because of the large aggregation of individuals there is need of that form of education which shall

guide men in their corporate relation to society. The community in our country is not composed as the Jeffersonian Democrats seem to imagine—of a group of independent individuals. We do not exist as independent individuals; we exist in groups. The successful party politician gets the men who can handle his group, his crowd. It is the same spirit as that which makes the boys' gang—both the chief evils and the chief good of it. This is where the value of inter-institutional athletics lies: they meet a coming social demand and focus the consciousness of the institution. In this respect, then, intercollegiate athletics are but one expression of that vast social evolution that is changing the world. It is shown by new interest in the mass, the team, the gang, the institution.

The basis of ethics is loyalty. I have seen schools in which there was no feeling of school consciousness. There was no assembly place to accommodate all the students, no outside function which brought them together; there was no occasion through which they could become conscious of each other and conscious of being a group. I have seen such schools, under the influence of a team going out and representing them in athletics, awaken to consciousness, awaken to loyalty to the whole. That is the great object, the unconscious object, of inter-institutional sports—that welding into one the attention of the student and the faculty body in an interest so fundamental and unitary as to admit in the inclusion of its sweep practically all the members of an educational institution.

Athletics are important, not as athletics, but because of this social effect, and because social opportunities similar in character are so few. The times demand men with higher corporate morality, and it cannot be obtained from books or from lectures. It cannot be secured even through the example of persons who are fine in their personal lives. It can be

obtained only by doing the thing itself—by being loyal to the whole. There is no other avenue open to us by means of which it is possible to develop the idea of corporate, of inter-institutional morality—that which represents the individuals but includes them as a whole—than inter-institutional athletics. No other agency can be so effective, for nothing else begins to have the grip on the imagination and emotional life of our young men as do these athletics. A generation ago we had debating associations in which many colleges were interested. There the inter-institutional debate brought out this feeling for the whole in a similar way. Class spirit in American colleges is declining, because of the growth of numbers and because of the elective system of courses. This is one of the vanished opportunities for the development of the social spirit.

We say "represent the honor of the institution," and that is coming. The standards of morality are advancing fast, and the time is not far distant when public opinion will not permit corporate action which is now not tolerated in individuals. Students may be trusted in the rooms of their friends; they will not steal their possessions; but the time has not yet come when games will not be stolen if the thing can be done.

Dishonesty is tolerated, under various disguises, in the majority of athletic organizations. Professionalism exists almost everywhere. Undergraduates know flagrant cases of it in their own college, and—for the honor of the institution!—help in concealing them. Victory at any cost is considered more honorable than honorable defeat.

However, the instrument must not be discredited and abandoned because of the ill-directed use that has so far been made of it, for it is to perform a function that is of unique moral significance. This is an advance in the direction of that corporate honesty toward which we are tending.

THE NEW BOOKS

One of the admirable by-products of the Country Life Commission has been the production of "The Young Farmer's Practical Library," edited by Ernest Ingersoll. As the editor says, this is the day of the small book to meet the needs of the man and woman who find that there is much to be done, that time is short, and who want information in a compact form, authentic, well delivered, and confined directly to the subject in view. The Library is designed to lend real assistance to those who are looking about for new tools and fresh ideas, and it is especially addressed to the needs of the man and woman on the farm and in the village who do not have the chance of getting what is given in great cities, and who are striving not only to increase the bank account but to make their lives and the lives of their family broader and brighter. The volumes published are as follows:

From Kitchen to Garret. By Virginia Terhune Van de Water.

Neighborhood Entertainments. By Renée B. Stern, of the Congressional Library.

Home Waterworks. By Carleton J. Lynde, Professor of Physics in Macdonald College, Quebec.

Animal Competitors. By Ernest Ingersoll.

The Farm Mechanic. By L. W. Chase, Professor of Farm Mechanics in the University of Nebraska.

The Satisfactions of Country Life. By Dr. James W. Robertson, Principal of Macdonald College, Quebec.

Roads, Paths, and Bridges. By L. W. Page, Chief of the Office of Public Roads, United States Department of Agriculture.

Health on the Farm. By Dr. L. F. Harris, Secretary Georgia State Board of Health.

Electricity on the Farm. By Frederick M. Conlee.

Co-operation among Farmers. By John Lee Coulter.

A glance at the titles shows how wide the field is which the books cover, and how essential the needs are to which they respond. The volume immediately before us, written by the editor himself, Mr. Ingersoll, deals with the animal competitors of the farmer, and describes the loss he suffers and the profit he can gain from his wild four-footed tenants on the farm. It is a book of great practical value, and, moreover, very interesting, not only to the farmer, but to every one who lives in the country. The whole series is admirably designed to serve the purpose which it has been written to serve. (Sturgis & Walton Company, New York.)

The book by Ellen C. Semple called "Influences of Geographic Environment, on the Basis of Ratzel's System of Anthropo-Geography" is a valuable and scholarly work, based on the work of the great German student and writer Friedrich Ratzel, who has done so much to place anthropo-geography on a secure scientific basis. It is also emphatically an original book, for the Kentucky author has proceeded upon her own plan, has developed her own ideas, and has done work which will be of value to all serious students and will also prove inter-

esting to the intelligent reader who is concerned with the matters that are of capital importance in the history of man on the globe. It would be impossible here to treat the book at length, because of the far-reaching and fundamental importance of the different matters discussed therein. The very names of the chapters suggest this. They include "The Operation of Geographic Factors in History," "The Movements of Peoples in their Geographical Significance," a study of "Society and State in Relation to the Land," a study of "Geographical Boundaries," of "Man's Relation to the Water," of "The Anthro-Geography of Rivers," of the curious transition zone in ethnic development, ever shifting, which the coasts of the continent have always constituted, and studies of the effects of plains, of deserts, of mountain barriers and passes, of islands and of climate, upon man. The reviewer believes that in this book very naturally sometimes too much is claimed for the effect of geographical conditions upon man's development, and on this point and on such points as the belief that monotheism is due to existence on the desert and the grassy plain, or that history tends to repeat itself largely owing to the steady, unchanging geographic element, the present volume and Mr. Chamberlain's "Foundations of the Nineteenth Century" are mutual correctives; but the book is well worth serious study, and, moreover, will be of genuine interest to a considerable class of intelligent general readers. (Henry Holt & Co., New York. \$4.)

That this is an "age of transition" has become a truism, and yet the fact is far from universally accepted. In theology the battle seems to have been fought. The contest has been transferred to the political, social, and industrial world. Hannis Taylor, through his "Origin and Growth of the American Constitution," has rendered a real service to the political student, and to all earnest citizens, in calling attention anew to the elements of strength and weakness in the great document which is his theme. The reader can scarcely fail to see how its roots are embedded in and draw their nourishment from centuries of struggle and effort, and he ought to feel more than ever proud of his Anglo-Saxon parentage. The author, however, is especially interested in what is distinctive in the "Federal Constitution." He presents clearly and forcibly the following: First, the Federal authority was clothed with power to tax. Second, the Federal head was divided into three departments—legislative, executive, and judicial—*operating directly upon individuals* rather than upon the States. Third, the Federal assembly was divided into two chambers instead of one. Fourth, the Federal judiciary was empowered to put the stamp

of nullity upon a National law. He truly says: "Nothing could be more superficial than to attempt to differentiate the English and American Constitutions by the entirely false and misleading statement that the one is unwritten, the other written. . . . In the last analysis the fundamental difference that divides the two systems is embodied in the fact that the supreme and ultimate power in the one is vested in Parliament, in the other in the Supreme Court of the United States." Dr. Taylor believes firmly with Sir James Mackintosh that "constitutions are not made, they grow," and that the apparent transition from individualism to collectivism has produced an economic revolution which cannot be met by formal constitutional amendment, but that any genuine solution of its difficulties can come only from the Supreme Court. Important as Peletiah Webster's "Dissertation" (given to the world in February, 1783) undoubtedly is, students will question whether Dr. Taylor's appreciation is not rather extreme. For instance, without justly incurring the charge of hypercriticism, one might feel that the following lacks perspective: "In the midst of the midnight there was but a single star, and that was visible only to the eyes of the elect. To those watchers of the skies it came like a new planet when, on February 16, 1783, the great one laid at the doors of the Congress an entirely novel yet complete solution of the mighty problem by which they were mastered and overcome. No invention of the human mind was ever more distinctly removed from all rivalry by the isolation surrounding its birth. No sane or serious person will contend that it had been preceded by any prototype whatever; and not until about four years after its appearance was any attempt made to reproduce it in any form. While it thus stood forth in the solitude of its own originality, it was seized upon by three youthful statesmen, Madison, Hamilton, and Charles Pinckney, who, after restating it in the form of more or less complete systems of government, made it the basis of the proceedings of the Federal Convention of 1787." Due restraint, however, is shown when he speaks of Abraham Lincoln as one "whose quaint originality, aptness of phrase, clearness of definition, and poetical fervor often culminated in flights of genuine eloquence." The reader will probably tire of the iterated and reiterated reference to February 16, 1783, the date when Peletiah Webster's "Dissertation" was published. In spite of these defects, however, the book is a strong one, and will repay careful study. The Constitutional documents in the appendix will prove serviceable to students. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. \$4.)

The Rev. H. D. Rawnsley, Canon of Carlisle, is the well-known author of "Literary Associations of the English Lakes" and other books which have to do with a region very familiar to him. He apparently knows

every stick and stone in the country. His own residence there and his love of the peculiar dignity of the scenery, and especially of what that scenery has meant in English literature, give him a certain atmospheric power of expression which can hardly fail to impress the reader. A good example of Mr. Rawnsley's style is found in the present volume, "By Fell and Dale at the English Lakes." Its descriptions are rather too intimate and too local to attract the general reader, or, indeed, to attract the ordinary tourist in England. The book is really one for those who know the English lakes thoroughly. (The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.75.)

The Rev. S. Baring-Gould has an almost incredibly long list of books to his credit. He turns them out with such frequency as to cause a suspicion that they may be altogether too superficial to repay reading. But they are not. It has been this author's good fortune to write on many topics hardly touched upon by other writers—for instance, "The Deserts of Southern France." This is true of Mr. Baring-Gould's latest volume, "The Land of Teck." Most of us have heard of the Swabian Alb, but to most of us it is but a name. Comparatively few tourists other than German visit the region—a region full of interest, not so much from the scenic standpoint as because of its historical interest. The Alb is the ancient Duchy of Teck, the cradle of the German Imperial family and of the Teck family, the most prominent member of the latter being the present English Queen. Those who have walked or cycled through that interesting part of Würtemberg, who have sojourned in its picturesque red-tiled, timber-and-plaster villages, who have admired the monuments of architecture and sculpture to be found in that region, and who have enjoyed the restful charm of the lush meadows and lovely hills, will be grateful to Mr. Baring-Gould for having called the attention of English and American readers to this particular part of the world. A visit to it is entirely practicable; it is easily reached by railway, and yet ninety-nine out of every hundred travelers rush past it. The land of Teck may be said to run in rough parallel with the course of the river Neckar in southern Würtemberg. Its length is about a hundred miles; its breadth about twenty-five miles. This is the Alb; at its greatest elevation it is about three thousand feet high. From this highland inspiring prospects may be obtained—to the north over the plain of Würtemberg, to the west over the dark profile of the Black Forest, and in the south one may see the gleaming peaks of the Alps. While, as may be fancied from his other books, Mr. Baring-Gould's volume is illuminative with regard to the geology of the region, it is doubtless respecting its history that the book will attract most readers, and a number of interesting historical facts are developed. We learn, for instance, that Teck was

not originally a duchy, but a county pertaining to the celebrated Zähringen family that had great possessions in Baden and in Switzerland. The name Teck was incorporated with that of the Duke of Zähringen many centuries ago. If the Teck family were all that the land had produced, Mr. Baring-Gould's book would not be so significant, but, as he says, to describe the Alb and its historical associations and to leave out the Hohenzollerns would be the performance of "Hamlet" with Hamlet left out. We have accordingly an extremely interesting description of the land and dynasty of Hohenzollern, a description all the more interesting because the relations between the house of Teck and of Hohenzollern have not been invariably amicable. Now, however, Queen Mary may be taken to represent the Ghibellines, the dukes of which succeeded to the possessions and titles of the Hohenstaufen dukes of Swabia and of Teck; through his Hanoverian descent King George represents the Guelphs. Thus an ancient party strife may be said to have come to an end in the marriage union of the King and Queen of England. It is just possible that the very busy man may wish Mr. Baring-Gould's text were less full of detail, but to one who has been fortunate enough to visit the Swabian Alb not a word too much concerning it has been printed. (The John Lane Company, New York. \$2.50.)

The story of Poland is perhaps the most moving of modern national tragedies, and the unconquerable spirit of nationality among the Poles is a striking evidence of the triumph of the immortal conviction and memory over the mortal body; for there has been no Poland for more than a century, and yet the ideal Poland remains undimmed in the minds of all Poles. In her sketch of "Adam Mickiewicz, the National Poet of Poland," Miss Monica M. Gardner has written a chapter in this tragedy of very deep interest, and told the story of the life of a gifted and unhappy man who, after years of prosperity and growing reputation, was misled by his own vain imagining and became the victim of his own credulity. The story is a long one and is told with feeling and intelligence. He was born on Christmas eve in 1798, in the Lithuanian forest, and he died at Constantinople in 1855. In his career, as in Byron's, the flame of pure idealism blazed up at the end in response to the idea which had taken possession of him—that a Polish legion might be organized to serve in Turkey as a band of Christian soldiers, as the champions of the Christian religion. The depression which resulted from the obvious failure of this imaginative scheme, perhaps as much as cholera, then ravaging in Constantinople, caused his death. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$3.50.)

Four members of the English Department in the United States Naval Academy (Captain George R. Clark, Professor W. O. Stevens, and Instructors C. S. Alden and

H. F. Krafft) have prepared "A Short History of the United States Navy." Parts of it have already been used in the Naval Academy as a text-book. The book consistently carries out the special designs of the authors, which they state as follows: "First, to present a record of exactly what happened, without personal, sectional, or national prejudice. Second, to regard naval events from the professional rather than the picturesque point of view; for example, to emphasize the maneuvering and gunnery in an action rather than the smoke and blood. Third, to suppress the trivial and bring out the important, not neglecting the services of officers in time of peace. Fourth, to give, whenever possible, the original sources, such as letters from Secretaries of the Navy and official reports of officers." (The J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. \$3.)

Mr. Morley Roberts's new story, "Thorpe's Way," is both whimsical and clever. It will not do to inquire too closely as to just what Mr. Roberts means us to understand Thorpe's views on life, society, and marriage to be. Like Mr. Hewlett's Jack Senhouse, Thorpe is a law unto himself, and the reader does not have to accept him as a teacher in order to appreciate his joyous contrast with the rich Philistines who would thwart his extremely unconventional love-making—he proposes to his Molly at a dinner-table the first time he meets her. The novel is certainly amusing and abounds in quick strokes of character depiction and in lively dialogue, but it is too irresponsible to be taken seriously as an assault on existing social conditions. (The Century Company, New York. \$1.20.)

Lady Clifford, better known to novel readers as Mrs. De la Pasture, has a special gift in her stories of presenting a simple, natural, modest, sweet-natured English girl. Such a girl is her May in "Master Christopher," and she is sharply contrasted with the brilliant, insolent, poor, and ambitious Erica, who deludes three suitors, fails to impress the man she really loves, and, through an accidentally overheard remark, loses her chance to marry the heavy "Master Christopher." The novel is readable enough, but hardly has sufficient substance to warrant such elaborate treatment. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$1.25.)

As a descriptive book Mr. Frank Yeigh's "Through the Heart of Canada" is an excellent piece of work, and its informative value is increased by its abundant illustration. There are also some chapters (notably those on "The Foreigner in Canada" and "The Land of the Rancher") which give some idea of living conditions and large problems. One wishes that the author had gone further in this direction, and devoted correspondingly less attention to matters already dealt with by previous travelers and in books of reference. (A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. \$2.75.)

LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

CHINA AND THE UNITED STATES

[The Outlook is permitted to print the following letter from Dr. W. A. P. Martin, the veteran American missionary and educator in China. It has a special interest as showing Chinese feeling with regard to American participation in the great loan described in The Outlook of June 24 under the title "Encouraging News from China."—THE EDITORS.]

About ten days ago [Dr. Martin is writing under date of May 12 last] the "National Review," a Chinese weekly published in Shanghai, came out with a cartoon which hits off the political situation by a few strokes of the pencil. It bears the punning label, "He Knox best who Knox last." First and last it deals with the policy of Secretary Knox in Manchuria. In the foreground a strong man has dealt a heavy blow on a machine for registering the force of impact. The blow is the loan for development backed by four nations, and its marvelous effect alarms two figures (Japan and Russia) who stand in the rear scowling with anger and disappointment, while the Chinaman in front claps his hands and shouts.

To take in the full import of this picture story we must remember how Knox's demand for the "open door" was flouted; how his proposal for the neutralization of the railways was sneered at; and how the two robbers who had fought for the possession of Manchuria came to an understanding to divide the spoils. The great loan enables China to assert herself, and the favor of the four Powers who stake so much on her success encourages her to counteract the ill-concealed plot for disintegration.

In all this the more intelligent Chinese discover the hand of American diplomacy. American credit is accordingly above par just at present.

By way of contrast, may I not refer to the circumstances connected with the first appearance of our flag in this city [Peking]? It was fifty-two years ago. A combined fleet of English and French gunboats had suffered a humiliating defeat at the Taku forts. We Americans were onlookers, but not indifferent. Our gallant old Commodore Tatnall, when appealed to for assistance, exclaimed, "Blood is thicker than water!" and, throwing scruples to the winds, he towed up a flotilla of British barges in the vain hope of retrieving the fortunes of the day. Our Minister, Mr. Ward, hastened to Peking in the hope of averting a renewal of the war. His effort was not merely humane but in strict accordance with a clause inserted in the treaty of the year before by the Chinese negotiator to the effect that in case of difficulty with other nations the good offices of the United States should be employed to preserve peace. Yet, on refusing to kneel,

he was denied an audience and dismissed in disgrace—so little did China dream of the cloud that was ready to burst on her head, and so obstinately did she cling to her absurd claims to supremacy. It was not Mr. Ward's fault that Peking was compelled to open its gates after the Court had been put to flight and the Summer Palace laid in ashes. Had he been successful, how long might those gates have remained barred against every influence tending to renovate this ancient Empire? Seldom has the hand of an overruling Power been more manifest. But, instead of indulging in fanciful conjectures as to what might have been, is it not more to the purpose to point out how since that day the good offices of America have been employed on more than one occasion with good effect?

It was Anson Burlingame, our first Minister at the capital, who organized a "co-operative policy" for the protection of China, and it was he who, with the co-operation of Mr. (now Sir Robert) Hart, first introduced China to diplomatic intercourse with the Western world.

In 1870 Dr. Yung Wing, educated in America, succeeded in launching the first educational mission. It found a congenial home in the United States, and those early students have, many of them, filled conspicuous positions in the home and foreign service of their country. The rill which he directed toward our shores has now grown to a river. China is now sending us her choicest students by fifties and hundreds, and, with a view to preparing them to enter on college studies without loss of time, a great school has been opened on the ruins of the Yuen Ming Yuen, where a large corps of American teachers have newly entered on the preparatory work with four hundred youth in their classes.

The fact that America has never had a war with China, or fired a shot except for the protection of our people, tells strongly in our favor, and it is known to the Chinese authorities that in 1900, when foreign troops forced their way into this capital to rescue their beleaguered countrymen, it was through the policy of Mr. Hay that the intervening Powers pledged themselves to respect the integrity of the Empire.

After the Russo-Japanese War the good offices of the United States were again conspicuous in promoting peace and in securing the restoration of China's territorial rights.

The capital stroke, for which our able Minister, Mr. Calhoun, deserves to share the credit along with Mr. Knox, will, it is hoped, put a quietus on the land-grabbing schemes of Russia and Japan.

Is it surprising that America should be the favorite—the least hated and the most trusted of foreign nations? The pages of the native press are filled with eulogies of our great

Republic; and some of these sheets are eager to bring about an alliance of China with the United States similar to that of Japan with Great Britain.

Peking, China.

W. A. P. M.

THE LITERARY QUALITY IN HISTORY

I am quite sure that most historical workers will lament with *The Outlook* the lack of literary quality in much historical writing. They also lament the lack of exactitude in much historical writing that attempts literary character. *The Outlook* is sensible, of course, that to obtain history which is literature and history which is accurate depends upon human qualities not often found in the same person. He who has the art of getting at the facts—and it really is quite an art, and difficult enough to master—somehow does not have the art of building his “facts” into a literary structure that pleases, perhaps fascinates, a multitude of readers. And then, you must remember, if the historian does possess the art of producing a work of literature, that work, likely enough, is not history, but a monument to his own personality. History is more than the presentation of facts about a people's past. I hold that it ought to be a representation of their peculiar temper—that which in the large has made the life of that people significant and which has made the facts of their history possible. In this view it is questionable if one gets the history of England in, say, the delightful volumes of J. R. Green, even supposing Mr. Green to be an accurate historian. We get, I am sure, the personality, the temper, of Mr. Green, not the historic temper of the English people. However this may be—and I think there is a psychological, sociological argument for this opinion—it seems true that the literary artist cannot always apply himself, hour after hour, year after year, in painfully laboring at some historic “junk-pile;” his imagination and his temperament would often lead him hence from this drudgery. My friend sits over there in the library perhaps twelve hours a day, six days in the week, and week after week, plodding away with matter that cannot touch his imagination—that he admits is deadening, that it is important to know about but that it is hard to see can be a basis for a historical masterpiece that glows and is moving. Another historical worker has delved in the same field of research. His results have been published in a very readable volume. I read in one chapter that the first railway chartered in Michigan was the Michigan Central Railroad. This is not true. I read on a little farther that the Michigan Central Railroad was opened in 1837. This also is not true. I begin to wonder if the whole book is, after all, a “pipe-story.” It can hardly be so, for it carries the name of one great in history. But I do not like to be “fooled.” The author has taken his work seriously, no doubt; I certainly have taken him seriously; but I must admit that we must not be too

trusting in this regard. My friend who plods away twelve hours per day, six days per week, will not deceive me thus; but perhaps I shall take no pleasure in his book. How compass the dilemma?

Then there is another element in the problem of the literary historian. The palpably interesting things which one likes to put into his book—the things which strike and hold the average reader—somehow seldom bear examination. Mr. Fiske must have discovered in his literary peregrinations that the valid evidence—the evidence of Hamilton and the army officers who testified under oath at the trial of Charles Lee—pointed to a denial of the story that Washington cursed General Lee at the Battle of Monmouth. But the story was a good one to tell. Think of it: the ideal character in our National history so far forgetting himself as to curse—or rather, so far asserting his just indignation as to call forth the admiration of all Americans from that time to this! The story is a good one; it helps the book; it must go in; it goes in—it and several others quite as dubious.

These literary devices are, after all, a clever makeshift. The vital things of human history are interesting oftentimes without any resort to the flamboyant and the merely striking. A harum-scarum student of mine—just a boy who seemed created only for mischief—was fascinated by the moving narration of Mr. Rhodes without any appeal to cheap sensationalism.

The making of a great historian is an interesting matter. Surely he should have conscience, culture, experience, imagination; be a large personality with a great capacity for taking pains. We have had very few such; the amount of work to be done is enormous. We shall have to worry along with imperfect results.

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WEST AND EAST

There is one respect wherein casual visitors from the Atlantic Coast States usually fail in some degree to understand the conditions of society in the West and Middle West. And, as this respect constitutes, at least as much as any other, the difference between the two branches of the same civilization, it is well to analyze as clearly as possible the difference—a difference which is sometimes remarked by discerning minds of the West, though it appears usually to perplex the Easterner; just as the European is perplexed by the presence of the same phenomenon the moment he lands upon American shores, and his perplexity increases as his mileage ticket from New York grows shorter.

The longer a community has been established, the more solidified and uniformly binding upon all its members is its code of manners and morals. Rarely does any citizen in these older states of society presume

to set up and live independently by his own individual standards. If he attempts to do so, he is at once branded as eccentric.

In the Middle West codes of manners and morals are not lower, but they are, as codes, less generally binding. Individuality has larger play, the dictum of convention is feebler.

Still farther West there are indeed legally established statutes and ordinances; but there are as many codes of manners and morals, especially of manners, as there are individuals. Each individual carries within himself his own standard; and each is, by necessity of environment, compelled to show deference to the standards of his neighbor. What is perfectly normal in the Dakotas would be looked upon in Massachusetts as an unwarrantable independence dangerously near to eccentricity. Even between eastern Minnesota and the Dakotas there is a marked difference, the latitude of individuality being wider the newer the community.

Why is this? It is because, in the West, the people have been gathered from every State in the Union and from every nation under heaven, from every social stratum and from no social stratum, and have been flung heterogeneously into a free community, under economic and other conditions wholly different from what any of them has lived under before. And the results? Exactly what any wise man might have anticipated.

This condition is not unwholesome. It develops individuality, self-reliance, catholicity, and breadth. Its disadvantages are not probably greater than those under a long-established and well-defined code; while its advantages will almost, if not altogether, offset the diminished friction and the greater tranquillity of life under universally accepted conventions.

CHARLES W. JEROME.

Duluth, Minnesota.

SEPARATING PASSENGER AND FREIGHT EARNINGS

What difference should it make whether the passenger fares on a railway are based on the earnings of its passenger service or its passenger and freight service combined? The earnings of a railway are the earnings of the road, whether they come from passenger or freight service. There are none of the roads in this country which have succeeded in getting the courts to allow them to raise the passenger rates from the amount fixed, in some cases by the Legislatures of the States, and then, again, by the railway commissions, which would not be compelled to maintain the legislative or commissions rate if their net earnings from operation of the road were taken into consideration, and not solely their passenger earnings. Some of the roads, under the recent decision of Judge Sanborn affecting the passenger rates in Minnesota, are maintaining their stocks at a price between \$150 and \$200 per share, and the par of the stocks is \$100, and not one dollar

was ever paid for the original issues of this stock, by the promoters and original investors; what stock was not given with the bonds as bonus stock was in every case retained by the promoters. The dividends are paid on the par value of the stock, and there is no benefit accruing to the investor when the stock goes above par, so far as the earning power of his investment goes or is taken into consideration, excepting an earning which he has paid nothing for.

What we seem to need is a positive law that a court must take into consideration, when called upon to fix passenger fares, the entire earnings of the road, both freight and passenger. The freight earnings of most roads are about five or six times as much as the passenger earnings; they were earned upon the same tracks, under the same management, and should be indivisible from the passenger earnings. No corporate stock should be allowed to be sold above its par value, and in the case of railways, all earnings should be considered in fixing passenger rates.

CHARLES D. SMITH.

Fond du Lac, Wisconsin.

IS LYNCH LAW DEFENSIBLE?

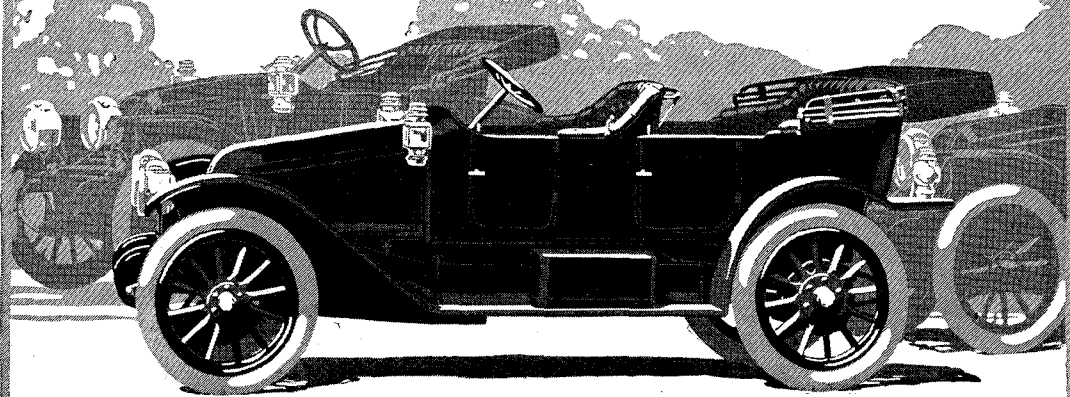
In your issue of June 24 you say: "In 1891 some Italians were massacred by a mob in New Orleans. The massacre was a wholly indefensible outrage on citizens of Italy." If my memory serves, those Italians were on trial before a jury for the murder of the chief of police. Their friends notified the members of that jury that, if they convicted the prisoners, their (the jurymen's) wives and children would be murdered. As assassination had been a common occurrence among those Italians, the members of the jury believed them, and refused to convict the accused, in spite of the clearest evidence, because they feared for their families. Thereupon an orderly "mob" went to the prison, took the prisoners out, and shot them.

Those Italians had paralyzed the whole machinery of justice, of which trial by jury is the mainspring. Had they not placed themselves outside the law, as was the case with the men in San Francisco who were hanged by the famous Vigilance Committee? In other words, had they not established a condition of virtual civil war? And is not this precisely such a case—*mutatis mutandis*—as Mr. Roosevelt had in mind when he said, in The Outlook of May 20: "Among private individuals the man who, if his wife is assaulted and has her face slapped, will go to law about it, instead of forthwith punishing the offender, would be regarded with derision?"

I have no slightest wish to defend lynching as a custom, but it seems to me that the New Orleans case, like the San Francisco cases, lies quite outside the ordinary conditions, and is not wholly "indefensible."

F. H. P.

Franklin



TIRE TROUBLE IS NOT A FACTOR WITH THE FRANKLIN. LARGE TIRES, LIGHT WEIGHT AND RESILIENCY ELIMINATE THE ANNOYANCE AND EXPENSE OF BLOW-OUTS; EVEN PUNCTURES ARE RARE. TOTAL SERVICE PER SET OF TIRES BY ACTUAL REPORTS FROM OWNERS IS EIGHT TO TEN THOUSAND MILES WITH AN AVERAGE OF THREE THOUSAND MILES WITHOUT A PUNCTURE. FOUR CHASSIS SIZES AND TWELVE BODY STYLES INCLUDE TWO-, FOUR-, FIVE-, AND SEVEN-PASSENGER MODELS.

ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE SENT ON REQUEST

FRANKLIN AUTOMOBILE COMPANY
SYRACUSE N Y

The Story of the Coronation

By **Ralph D. Blumenfeld**

Special Correspondent for The Outlook

The August Magazine Number of The Outlook (next week's issue) will contain Mr. Blumenfeld's picturesque account of the Coronation ceremonies, with abundant illustration specially obtained. This story will be found to be a brilliantly told narrative with plentiful color and atmosphere.

Other illustrated features of the August Magazine Number will be Mr. Paul Bransom's "Jungle Nights," Miss Jeannette L. Gilder's "Great-Hearted Thackeray," Mr. Charles Stelzle's "The Labor Temple," Dr. C. L. Slattery's "The Debt of the Church to William James," the second article in Albert Edwards's series on "Our Canal," which tells of "Our Predecessors on the Job," Myra Emmons's "Pageantry for Children," Meriel Hathaway's "Training England's Future King," Gardner Teall's "My Old Bridge," and the Spectator's description of a recent visit to "Seven Gardens," with pictures thereof.

Classified Advertisements

Advertising rates are: Hotels and Resorts, Apartments, Summer Camps, Tours and Travel, Real Estate, Live Stock and Poultry, fifty cents per agate line, three columns to the page. Not less than four lines accepted. In calculating space required for an advertisement, count an average of six words to the line unless display type is desired.

"Want" advertisements, under the various headings, "Board and Rooms," "Help Wanted," etc., ten cents for each word or initial, including the address, for each insertion. The first word of each advertisement is set in capital letters without additional charge. Other words may be set in capitals, if desired, at double rates. If answers are to be addressed in care of The Outlook, twenty-five cents is charged for the box number named in the advertisement. Replies will be forwarded by us to the advertiser and bill for postage rendered. Special headings appropriate to the department may be arranged for on application.

Orders and copy for Classified Advertisements must be received with remittance ten days before the Saturday on which it is intended the advertisement shall first appear. Address Advertising Department, The Outlook, 287 Fourth Ave., New York City.

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For Booklet and Special June and July rates address
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Interlaken Inn and Cottages, Lakeville, Conn. 2 hours from New York; between two lakes; service first class; accommodation for automobile parties. Open May 1. Address Manager.

Dr. Givens' Sanitarium

For NERVOUS and mild MENTAL diseases. Has separate cottages for ALCOHOL and DRUG patients. Address DR. GIVENS, Stamford, Conn.

THE WYKEHAM INN Washington, Conn.

Open July 1st to September 20th.
Mrs. HAYDEN, Manager.

MAINE

THE HOMESTEAD

Bailey Island, Maine
Re-opens June 15. Send for folder and views of this charming and restful resort.
T. E. HAZELL.

CASCO BAY, Littlejohns Island, Me. Rockmore House and Cottages. A quiet, restful place with country and seashore combined. Moderate prices. Booklet. Opens June 15. G. H. HAMILTON, Prop.

Maplecroft Farm, Norway, Me. High and healthful location; beautiful scenery, good fishing; comfortable rooms and good table. Write booklet and rates. W. C. Hobbs, Prop.

THE BEECHES, Paris Hill, Me.

Altitude 900 ft. Sanitarium for semi-invalids.
CHARLOTTE F. HAMMOND, M. D.

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MAINE
York's Camps, Loon Lake. Special attention given families. Individual cabins with or without bath.
J. LEWIS YORK, Rangeley, Maine

Sorrento, Maine Bar Harbor.

The former management of the Dome-of-the-Rock, Castine, Maine, will open two delightful cottages for the summer. Illustrated booklets. Address the MISSES TILESTON, The Sorrento, Sorrento, Maine.

Ocean House, York Beach, Me. Leading hotel. 60 miles from Boston. Fine bathing, fishing, and sailing. Orchestra, golf, tennis, baseball. Pure water. Beautiful trolley rides. Illustrated booklet. W. J. Simpson.

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An ideal resort on the Massachusetts Coast. Hot sea water baths. Auto garage. Booklet.
H. W. DUNKLEE, Prop.

MASSACHUSETTS

Are You Going to Boston?

Ladies going to Boston without male escort will find the **Franklin Square House** a delightful and convenient place to stop. It is a home hotel in the heart of Boston for young women. It has a transient department for all women traveling alone. It is safe, comfortable, convenient of access, and prices reasonable. For particulars and prices address
Mrs. ALICE GRAY TEELE, Supt.
11 East Newton St., Boston.

BACK BAY BOSTON
Room and bath \$1.00 per day; also suites two and three rooms with private bath. Best residence section, on car line. **The Mountfort**, 5 Mountfort, cor. Beacon St. See Miss Clark.

COTUIT CAPE COD
SANTUIT HOUSE and Cottages
JAS. WEBB, Prop.

The Sippewissett Falmouth by the Sea

(On Cape Cod)
A delightful place for a Summer's recreation. Near Woods Hole and overlooking Buzzards Bay, justly called The Naples of America.

A strictly first class Summer Hotel. Attractively furnished; every modern convenience; rooms singly or en suite; private baths; Billiards, Bowling, Golf and Tennis free to guests. Cuisine unexcelled; excellent orchestra. Bathing facilities of the best, water averaging 74°. Fireproof Garage.
For rates and illustrated booklet address
P. F. BRINE
The Sippewissett, Falmouth, Mass.

CAPE COD
Miss Marion Smith has opened the "Rest" for convalescents and those needing care of graduate nurse. Good table and home comforts. Send for booklet. So. Harwich, Mass.

THE HARBOR VIEW

East Gloucester, Mass.
Situated directly on Gloucester Bay. Piazza 400 feet long. Private telephone exchange connecting rooms. Tennis court. Table a special feature. Booklet.
W. F. OSBORNE.

THE ROCKAWAY and COTTAGES
E. Gloucester, Mass.
Open May 1 to Oct. 1. Directly overlooking Massachusetts Bay. For illustrated booklet address
W. A. PUBLICOVER.

RAVENSWOOD

A few summer boarders can find accommodations on the North Shore between Magnolia and Gloucester. Address
Mrs. A. B. COOK, Gloucester, Mass.

MARBLEHEAD, MASS.

Finest harbor, greatest yachting center on Atlantic coast. **THE LESLIE** situated on edge of harbor, rooms with or without private bath. Address
M. M. CHANDLER.

MASSACHUSETTS

THE NANEPASHEMET

Marblehead Neck, Mass.
Opens June 15. Finest location on North Shore. Every room ocean view. Circular.
E. G. BROWN.

New Management THE GREYLOCK Williamstown, Mass.

In the Berkshires. Seat of Williams College. Special low rates for July and August.
HENRY N. TEAGUE, Lessee.

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Hillside Inn, White Mountains. Greatly enlarged; rates moderate; popular sports; grand mt. climbing & drives; garage. Booklet. L. T. Clawson, Prop., Bethlehem, N. H.

"Idlewild" INTERVALE, WHITE MTS., N. H.

Open July 1 to Oct. 1. Under same management. Apply to Miss LOUISE B. CRAIG, Intervale, New Hampshire.

New Profile and Cottages

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Open July 1 to September 25th.
C. H. GREENLEAF D. B. PLUMER

FLUME HOUSE

Now open under same management.

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NOW OPEN. The best combination of seashore features on the coast. Matchless bay for sailing and fishing, perfect beach and bathing. The Engleside has all the modern conveniences, private baths, with sea and fresh water. Booklet. R. F. Engle, Manager. SURE RELIEF FROM HAY FEVER

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Every room the same full ocean view. Right on the beach. No "inside" rooms. Family rates
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FIREPROOF. Restaurant à la carte and table d'hôte. Club breakfasts.

Room with adjoining bath, \$1.50
Room and private bath, \$2.00
Suites, \$3.00 and upward
Write for coloured map "B" of New York

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of the Y. W. C. A.

14 East 16th St., New York

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Mrs. JAMES KNOTT, Proprietor.

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Hurricane Lodge and Cottages in the ADIRONDACKS Hurricane, Essex Co., N. Y. Comfortable, homelike. Altitude 1,800 ft. Extensive verandas overlooking Keene Valley. Trout fishing. Camping. Golf links, nine well-kept greens. Mile course. Tennis and croquet. Fresh vegetables. Fine dairy. Furnished cottages, all improvements. Terms \$16 to \$28 per week. Special rates for season. Booklet. Address until June 1st, K. BELKNAP, 121 Green St., Syracuse, N. Y.

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O. G. STAPLES, Owner and Proprietor
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NEW YORK

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The latest and best in Medical, Surgical, Electrical, and Hydrotherapy available for our patrons. Write for illustrated booklet and terms.
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The Ouleout, Franklin, Delaware Co., N. Y. Charming resting place in lovely village, ideal surroundings. Rooms en suite or single. Rates reasonable. Booklet.

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DR. STRONG'S The Saratoga Springs Sanitarium

Write for Booklet A

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Cool rooms, large porches, boating, bathing, fishing. \$7 and \$8 per week. Mrs. C. M. PHINNEY, Walkill, N. Y.

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Graduate Nurse will take country home semi-invalid. Address Box 164, Spring Lake Beach, N. J.

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Reasonable Board in private family. Tutoring if desired. 3,395, Outlook.

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Quiet, cool place for vacation.

Bracing air, large rooms, shady lawn, good table, beautiful lake and mountain scenery. SMITH FARM, Shoreham, Vt.

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Physician's office with extension and waiting-room for rent, furnished, in private house. Desirable living accommodations. Excellent location. Mrs. Gluck, 1041 Madison Av., N.Y.C.

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Farm 84 Acres 77 cultivated, 7 woodland, stream, 7-room house, good repair; water in house, 1½ miles from depot; apple orchard and plenty of other kinds of fruit; free and clear; price \$6,500; will take back \$2,500. Owner wishes to retire. F. PETTIT, Hopewell, N. J.

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Apply to

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For Sale—43 W. 49th St.

Columbia leasehold, twenty-two foot, four story and basement. Terms reasonable.

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NEW YORK

FOR RENT

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on

UPPER ST. REGIS LAKE

Camp contains about twenty acres and is situated about four miles from Paul Smith's by water. The camp is furnished, including towels, bed and table linen, and consists of a one-story main building, comprising a living room, dining room, and five family bedrooms, each with an open fireplace. A bathroom with hot and cold water and flush closet is adjacent to these bedrooms. Kitchen, butler's pantry with hot and cold water, and maid's dining room also on the first floor. A separate building contains three maids' bedrooms. There are three tents and platforms. Laundry with stationary tubs and hot and cold water and icehouse are separate buildings. There is a large woodshed full of wood, and over it are two bedrooms for guides. There are two boat landings, at one of which is a boat-house, with space for a launch and four rowboats. Above are two large sleeping rooms and a porch 26 by 12 feet which could be used for a sleeping out porch. There is a rustic summer house and a well with pump to force water to a tank. There is a barn with stalls for two horses. The Camp lies at Portage leading to Saranac Lake and fronts on Upper St. Regis Lake. Railroad station is Lake Clear Junction, with both day and night trains from New York. Postoffice, telegraph and express office conveniences. JOHN A. CHAPMAN, Agent, 108 La Salle St., Chicago.

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in any section of the mountains consult

DURYEE & COMPANY

Real Estate, Saranac Lake, N. Y.

ADIRONDACKS

If you want a camp or cottage on any lake or in any village in the Adirondacks, write for a free illustrated booklet. William F. Roberts, Real Estate Office, Saranac Lake, N. Y.

TO RENT for August, a furnished house of 11 rooms, surrounded by grass and trees, at Inwood-on-the-Hudson. References required. Address Suburban, Washington Bridge P. O. Station, City.

Lake George bungalow and cottages for rent near Glenburnie Inn. Golf, tennis, boating, bathing, etc. Every convenience. W. E. Walton, Glenburnie-on-Lake George, N. Y.

Real Estate

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For sale, one of best equipped camps. Finest location on Lake Champlain. Property includes fine grove, boat-house, marine track, dock, bowling alley, ice-house, barn. Completely furnished. 4 acres. Grand Isle, Vermont. Price and terms right. Chas. A. Diefendorf, Plattsburgh, New York.

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Wanted—A Cottage for August in lake or mountain region. 5 bedrooms or sleeping porches. Best references. M. W. S., 68 Buckingham Road, Brooklyn, N. Y.

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DOMESTIC SCIENCE handbook free. Correspondence courses. American School Home Economics, Chicago.

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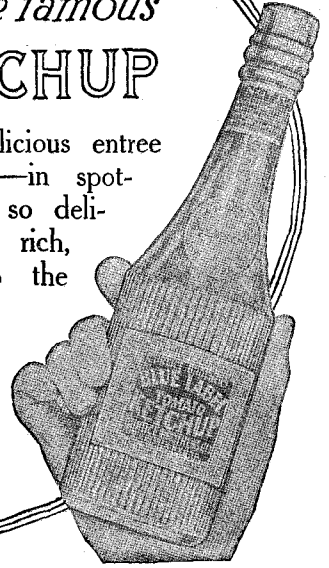


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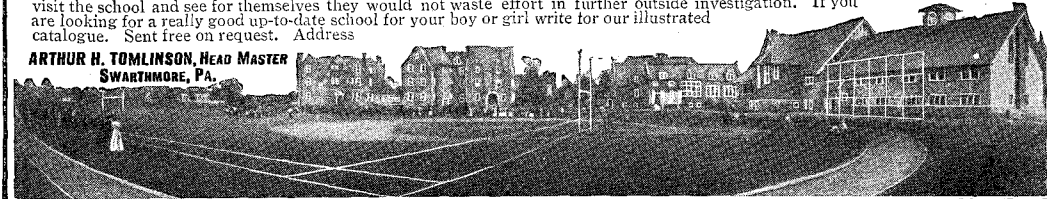


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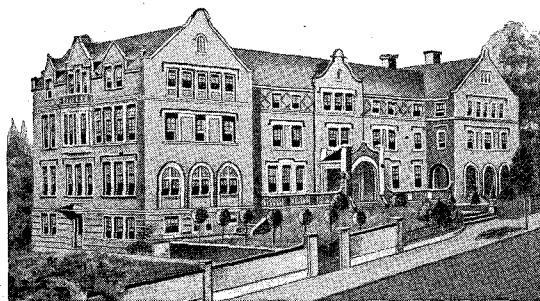
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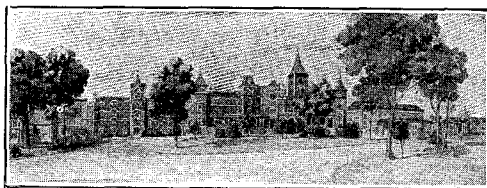
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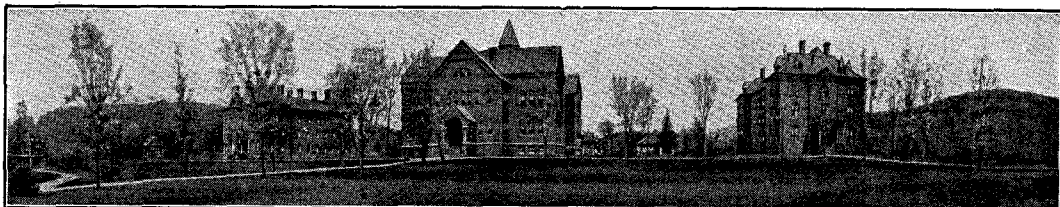
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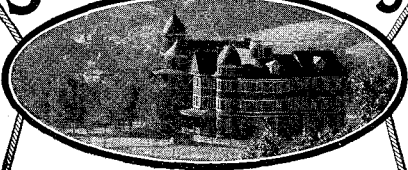
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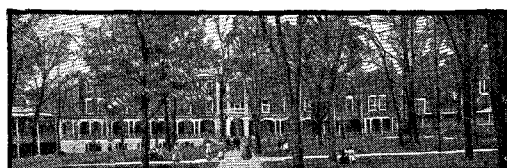
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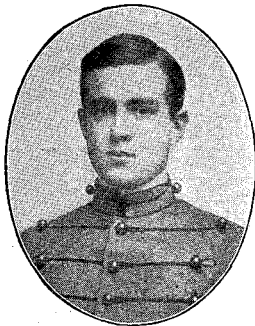
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